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ART. I. *The Life of Professor Gellert;* with a Course of Moral Lessons. delivered by him in the University of Leipsic; taken from a French Translation of the Original German. By Mrs. Douglas, of Ednam House. 3 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Hatchard. 1805.

THE virtue and the talents of Professor Gellert are not unknown to this country; and it may be desirable that the traits which distinguished his character, with some specimens of his public labours which were so highly prized in Germany, should be submitted to the English reader. It is to be regretted, however, that they have come to us through the medium of a translation of a translation; and if the public may tolerate this inconvenience, resulting perhaps from the state of the continent, it can scarcely be expected that criticism should sit in judgment on the shadow of a shade. In no case, perhaps, could the circumstance have occurred less favorably; since the lessons here delivered derive their merit less from research and analysis, than from the ready way by which they endeavour to reach the heart, and are addressed more to the feelings than to the reasoning faculties. It is therefore peculiarly the duty of the translator to study the turns of expression, the spirit, and the scope of the original: but such cannot in this instance have been the task of Mrs. Douglas: to whose good intentions we must be sensible, and whose circumscribed exertions we must receive with allowance.

It appears to have been the object of M. Gellert, in the present course, rather to render youth lovers and followers of virtue, than to instruct them in the niceties and subtleties of ethics as a system; and the compositions resemble sermons more than academical lectures. When the importance of early inculcating and strengthening religious and moral principles is considered, we are disposed to commend the plan without minutely animadverting on its execution. We must however admit that, weakened and disguised as we may suppose the author's ideas to be in these pages, they still retain merit sufficient

ficient to induce us to credit the accounts of the celebrity which they obtained in the most enlightened districts of the continent. We should also take into our consideration the degree in which they would be embellished by those charms of language, and by those graces of elocution, of which the Professor was master; and how much they would be enhanced when regarded as proceeding from the lips of a beloved and revered instructor, whose whole demeanour was an exemplar of the precepts which he delivered.

Christian Furchtegott Gellert was the son of a clergyman at Haynichen in Saxony, and was born in 1715. His youngest brother is known by his proficiency in the science of metallurgy, and is now inspector of the mines at Freiberg. He received his education at a public school at Meissen, and very early displayed a taste and a talent for poetry. In 1734, he went to the University at Leipzig, where he remained four years; and on leaving College, he commenced the duty of the pulpit, and the instruction of some private pupils. Returning afterward to Leipzig, he employed himself in writing, and in giving lectures; and in 1751, he obtained the situation of Professor Extraordinary in Philosophy, with a pension. Soon after this period, a violent hypochondriac affection rendered his days melancholy and his nights comfortless: yet he persevered in the duties of his station with most exemplary resolution. In 1761, a chair of Professor in Ordinary becoming vacant, he was nominated to the situation, but he declined it on account of his ill health. His labours, however, as a lecturer and as an author, were still continued; and he constantly received fresh marks of esteem and respect, from his pupils, from Princes, and from the public at large on the continent. His disorder gaining ground, an inflammation in the bowels put a period to his valuable life on the 13th of December 1769.

The ensuing relation will afford the reader an idea of the superior turn of mind which distinguished the Professor:

'His friendship was not merely the effect of natural disposition; it was produced by a sincere love for religion and virtue. He strongly felt that they alone can make any one truly amiable, that they alone constitute happiness; and when he met with persons unfortunate enough not to possess these qualities, he was touched with a most lively compassion, and neglected nothing in his power to make them better, and consequently happier. Some years after his return to Leipsick, he became acquainted with an unfortunate person of this kind. This man was like many others, who are said not to have a bad heart. The love of pleasure and libertinism led him to infidelity, and from hence he passed on to disorders, which equally destroyed his health and his fortune. Attacked by an illness equally disgrace-

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ful and painful, he wanted for every thing: he had neither tranquillity of mind, consolation, the means of procuring to himself any assistance, nor any hope of recovery; which hope can alone support the despisers of religion, and give them that degree of calmness ever necessary to their bodily cure. Despair and impatience aggravated the sufferings of this poor wretch: the most horrible oaths proceeded from his mouth every moment; there was no imprecation he did not pronounce against himself; no blasphemy he did not utter against Providence. Gellert, touched with compassion by this man's dreadful sufferings, and above all, by the deplorable state of his soul, was very desirous of relieving him. With this view, he began by endeavouring to gain his confidence, to convince him of the interest he took in him, and of the tender compassion he felt for his bodily sufferings. To have begun by speaking to him of religion and of his soul, would only have terrified him. Gellert seemed, therefore, entirely taken up with his illness, and the means of procuring him some alleviation to his sufferings. He assisted him as much as he could, and with the utmost attention and delicacy interested his friends in his behalf, and thus procured him the assistance and comforts required to calm his mind a little, and put him in a capacity of reflecting. Highly disgusting as was his illness, Gellert was continually with him, ever attentive to assist him, to amuse him, to alleviate his sufferings, and, above all, to let him see that tender sympathy, so consoling to the wretched, and which Gellert's eyes so well expressed.

'By little and little, the sick man's heart softened; he became less ferocious, and, from regard to so good a friend, he moderated his transports, and the violence of his impatience. This sensibility to the friendship of an amiable and benevolent man, disposed him, by degrees, to that more noble and sublime love, with which Gellert sought to inspire him. The sick man began to possess himself, and soon came to reflect; from reflection he passed to repentance, and to sincere endeavours to moderate his desperation, to restrain his tongue, and to abstain from those horrible oaths, which had become so habitual to him. At length, he not only permitted but requested his friend to give him notice, when from the violence of pain, he was in danger of forgetting himself. From day to day, his perplexity, his anxiety concerning his future state, and his desire of still obtaining forgiveness from God, became more lively. Till then, he had ridiculed the ministers of the gospel; now, he earnestly wished to be instructed and consoled by them. He became more and more resigned to the will of God; his patience encreased with his sufferiugs. He lived longer than was expected, and sometimes found himself so much relieved, that it seemed as if he might still indulge a hope of recovery. Gellert, in the mean time, had the joy of seeing the daily progress of his conversion. He left him only when his other indispensible duties obliged him to it, and applied his utmost, and unceasing care, to strengthen in the sick man's mind, on one side, the sense of his unworthiness, and abhorrence of his passed irregularities, and, on the other, the hope of obtaining mercy and forgiveness. This penitent sinner drew near his end. One day, when Gellert was alone

with him, and they were praying together, the sick man grew suddenly faint, seized the hand of his friend, blessed, and thanked him, recommended his soul to God, and expired. Gellert, surprised by a death so sudden and so calm, could hardly believe what he saw, and called for help; but, seeing his presence was now become useless, he withdrew, full of emotion, of joy, and of gratitude for the grace of God, which, he trusted, had made him instrumental to the salvation of an immortal soul.'

We shall now view the character of the Professor as an author. He wrote poetic fables, tales, and dramas:

'After publishing his first play, Gellert published the first volume of his tales and fables. The merit of these apologues is so plain and incontestable, that I might venture to affirm, that could we look into the judgment of posterity, we should find them to be ranked amongst the German classicks. They serve as amusements to youth, whose hearts we wish to form and whose taste we wish to improve. They have the suffrage of the female sex, which deviates least from nature, and which often forms as good a judgment from feeling, as we do from the rules of art. In a word, mothers rehearse them to their daughters, and the severest scholar would be ashamed to speak of them with indifference, or contempt. The choice of subjects, the moral, the style, all please, all do honour to the judgment, the understanding, and the heart of the poet. He does not rise so high as to be above the sight of the multitude, but he takes care not to descend so low as to escape the attention of good understandings.'—

"My greatest ambition," said he, in a letter to a friend, "is to please and make myself useful to reasonable people, rather than to mere scholars.

"I attach more importance to the approbation of a sensible woman, than to the praises of a periodical paper; and, in my opinion, one of the populace, if he is endowed with a sound judgment, well deserves that I should seek to fix his attention, to contribute to his amusement, and in narratives easily retained, to set useful truths before him, fitted to excite good emotions in his soul."

'A poet so much the friend of mankind, must have experienced feelings the most agreeable, when in the beginning of one winter he saw a Saxon peasant drive up to his door, a cart loaded with firewood, who demanded of him himself, whether he was not the gentleman who composed such fine tales? On the answer he received, the peasant, joy sparkling in his eyes, with many excuses for the liberty he took, made Gellert a present of the contents of his car, as a feeble mark of his gratitude for the pleasure he had received from reading his tales. Beauties exist, which every one may feel without having studied Aristotle; and Gellert was more affected by the simple praise proceeding from a good heart, than he was disturbed by certain critics, who unjustly reproached him with having imitated La Fontaine. "People will have it," says Gellert, "that I have imitated La Fontaine, and I can assure them it is not true. I had friends able in criticism, for which I am much indebted to circumstances. Convinced of their knowledge, docile in following their advice,

advice, I corrected my works without murmuring; I had sense enough to wish only to write for persons of understanding, and in that consisted all my wisdom. I never was able to imitate, and this my writings sufficiently prove: they would often be better, had I known how to profit by the example of my predecessors."

In the subsequent passage, the biographer alludes to the present course of lectures; and we suspect that few who are engaged in public instruction can claim the tribute to which the conduct of Gellert, as here described, is intitled:

'Gellert was, especially, an excellent moralist for young people of distinction; because he attached himself, in his lessons, much more to useful subjects, requisite to be known to all men, and to be constantly present to their minds, than to new and extraordinary ideas; because, in treating points of morality, which are easily comprehended, but difficult in practice, he knew how to give them a charm, calculated to fix the attention of his auditors; because he taught morals philosophically, it is true, but, at the same time, so improved in the school of Christianity, as to be more luminous, and acquire more empire over the heart; finally, because, in expressing the most affecting gratitude towards religion, he pointed it out as the faithful guide through the paths of life.

'This new service done to the young academicians, added much to his celebrity; the merit of his writings had been its foundation; the zeal and talents, which made him a model for instructors, supported and augmented it. Few learned academies can boast of so numerous an audience as Gellert. It often consisted of four hundred persons, and sometimes more. But, it was not only in public that he made himself useful; he was so also in his familiar discourses with his disciples. His door was never shut to them; each of them had as free an access to him, as if he alone had been admitted to enjoy this favour. In these conversations, Gellert never assumed the air of a master, he conversed with these young people as with his friends; he listened to them, he studied their character, he spoke little, but all that he said was on mature reflection; in a word, his very silence was expressive, and calculated to instruct; and, perhaps, the professor's society was not less advantageous to his disciples, than even his lessons. He had such an ascendency over the academical youth, and was so highly respected by them, that they abstained from libertinism and vice, only that they might not be deprived of the honour of being received at Gellert's, and of being noticed by him.'

Very unexpectedly, we are here introduced to a character who makes a splendid figure in the history of our times, but whom we now behold as the private individual. Unread himself, he courts the man of letters, and solicits the honour of his acquaintance; and the sketch of the *hero*, by the peaceful votary of the *muses*, cannot fail to arrest attention. It was at Carlsbad, from the waters of which they each sought relief for their several complaints, that these wo persons met:

'One of my first acquaintances, and also one of the most interesting, is General Laudon, a man of a singular character; serious, modest, a little melancholy, like me, talks little, like me, but expressing himself with sense and propriety; never speaking of his exploits, and seldom of his profession; he listens with attention, and you discover in his manner, and in his whole appearance, that propriety and amiable simplicity which reigns in his conversation. He is well made, without being tall; thin, but not so thin as I am; his cast of countenance is thoughtful, and his eyes, which are sunk in his head, of a bright grey, something like mine. It was by little and little that he came to converse familiarly with me, and I believe it was my melancholy air which procured me his confidence. "I should often seek you," said he to me, on meeting me one day in a private walk, "but that I fear being troublesome. Tell me, M. le Professeur," said he, one day, to me, "how is it possible you can have written so much, and infused so much gaiety into your works? To see you, one cannot well conceive it."—'I will explain this matter to you,' replied I, 'but first, M. le General, tell me, how is it possible that you can have gained the battle—the battle of Kunnersdorf, and taken Schweidnitz, in the space of one night? Seeing you, one cannot well conceive it.' At this moment I saw him laugh, for the first time; he generally confines himself to a smile. He had informed himself exactly concerning my tastes; never invited me to his table but when he was alone; hardly ever had any thing served but light food; offered me no wine but my own; let me talk with unreserve, and conversed with me in the same manner; allowed me to withdraw soon after dinner; in a word, conformed himself almost entirely to my inclinations. I never heard him say any thing but what was good, and he always appeared to me to be religious. He wished me to chuse a little library for him; and much regretted not having attended to study. But, in truth, his natural penetration, and his spirit of observation, supplied his want of knowledge; moreover, he is very fond of reading. "What could I give you, which might be agreeable to you;" said he, to me, one day, "I wish I could know?" 'M. le General,' answered I, 'in my circumstances, could you give me the whole university, the gift would be indifferent to me.'—His nephew, a lieutenant in the regiment of Laudon, had communicated to me a desire of renewing his studies, and desired me to request his uncle's permission to pass a year at Leipsick. "Willingly," answered the General, "if you will allow him to be recommended to your care." When he wished to converse confidentially with me, he drew me from the company, to a retired walk, and then no one interrupted us. Our adieus were short. What I have just now said, I entrust to your probity. Farewell; you shall hear from me. Adieu, my dear General, may God protect and bless your days.'

This excellent man, through the whole of his life, was the victim of ill health; which he bore with the meekness of the Christian, and the fortitude of a philosopher. If his views of religion were rather of the gloomy sort, rarely has she boasted of a disciple who displayed so much of her genuine spirit and salutary

salutary influence! Rarely indeed have piety and a love of letters been so conspicuous in the same individual!

That we may now enable the reader to form a judgment of the contents of these volumes, we submit to his perusal a few extracts. We shall first select a passage in which the author illustrates the distinction between plausible and truly virtuous characters:

'Aristus is the declared enemy of avarice, because he loves society, and that his thoughtlessness rather leads to think of enjoying pleasure, than of giving himself the trouble to accumulate. He cannot understand how any one can be avaricious; according to him it is decidedly to make ourselves ridiculous and hateful to every body, and to deprive us of the enjoyment of our fortune. He is as naturally liberal, as Harpagon, his brother, is inclined to the most sordid parsimony. Harpagon is universally hated, whilst Aristus's liberality is generally applauded. One, however, is not really more virtuous than the other; only Aristus's passion is more convenient, more advantageous to others, but at the tribunal of reason, it is not a virtue. He is as eager after pleasure and consideration in the world, as our miser is of the metal which procures pleasures and attention. Let Aristus chuse between giving a hundred crowns towards the education of a poor orphan secretly, and without a possibility of gaining reputation by so doing, and spending the same sum in entertaining his friends, he will soon discover the real dispositions of his heart. After all we will suppose him, in fact, to be liberal and obliging: Yes, for he sets no value on money. He will with pleasure bestow a few crowns on any one, rather than subtract one hour from his amusements, if he is called on to assist some unfortunate person with advice, who applies to him for it. He is not avaricious, be it so, such is his nature: he is liberal, I allow it, such still is his nature. His inclination for pleasure cannot accord with avarice, and urges him to give liberally. Is sensuality then the source of virtue?

'Prudentius is temperate in his use of food, moderate in his pleasures, and regular in his hours of sleep: but this is because he passionately loves money, and health, and life more than all. He would cease to be temperate if his stomach were more capable of digesting, if wine were less costly, and if he could possibly purchase an emancipation from illness. He takes care not to remain long at table, he knows that sitting too much is bad for the health; whereas walking or going out in a carriage is a very wholesome exercise; to this, therefore, he with pleasure gives up most of his time. He avoids being in a passion, he restrains himself, because passion would put his blood into a fermentation: but a malignant satisfaction arising from the ill success of others, is no source of ill health; in this, therefore, he allows himself. You will seldom hear him speak ill of others, he fears to become an object of resentment; but with how much pleasure will he not rally other people's failings? He finds something to laugh at in them, laughing enlivens him, and he feels the better for it. What signify to him, rank, titles, fame? he only wishes to live at his ease; and, to obtain vain glory, he will not act so as to shorten his days.

Prudentius, for all these reasons, imagines himself to be leading a very regular course of life, and in fact, it costs him not a little, so far to constrain himself; but who will believe this to be virtue in him, except himself who wishes to believe it, and those who are ignorant on what principle he acts. His virtue, his sovereign good, is money, health, and life. But is he then to enjoy good health, and long life, merely to live long and be healthy? Or have life and health no higher aims? Why then is he not temperate with a view to preserve the superiority of his faculties, both mental and corporeal, to make use of them as well as of his time for the advantage of society, for his own advantage in labouring after his own happiness, and from a principle of obedience to God?

'Erastus applies himself indefatigably to his commercial affairs; but has no object in view but to leave a great fortune to his children, and give consequence to his house. He does not allow himself in means the least improper to obtain this; it would be losing his credit, and exposing himself to be deprived of the blessing of Heaven. Nothing can equal his honesty and integrity: he tears himself from sleep to pursue his speculations, and he lives frugally that he may work more assiduously, at his desk. The most innocent recreations might make him neglect an occasion of gaining some lawful advantage; he prohibits himself from them entirely. His reputation is so well established, that he is cited as an example of a conscientious and laborious man, who sacrifices his life and his pleasure to his duty. But by what law is he obliged thus to give himself up to his commercial business, to enrich and aggrandize his family? A good education is preferable to riches, and he takes no pains to procure it to his children. The duty of accumulating wealth for them, is it not very inferior to that of watching carefully over their conduct, and that of all his household? After having slaved during fifty years at a laborious employment, which has not had a more elevated object in view than the enriching his family, what will he have done at the end of his life to enoble and bring his soul to perfection? To shrink from no kind of fatigue and anxiety, to leave a more considerable inheritance to children, and to aggrandize them, may be called vanity or natural affection, but never can be esteemed virtue.

'It is precisely by an effect of the attachment we have for ourselves, and for what belongs to us, that we so easily falsify and obscure our ideas of virtue, by giving this name to whatever procures us some lawful advantage, or which preserves us from the loss of health, of reputation, and of our well being in this life. We often think ourselves labouring in the cause of virtue, when, in fact, we are only employed in satisfying our passions. We become different from what we were, without being at all better or more religious.

'Every man, then, who wishes to be convinced of the value of virtue, must *know it*, form to himself ideas of *his duty from the holy and immutable will of God*, and compare his ideas and the divine will together, that he may estimate them justly; otherwise on a thousand occasions he will be unable to triumph over himself, and the most he will obtain will be the pomp of virtue. He must labour to renew and fortify his conviction, by silent reflection in retirement, and by exercising

exercising himself, each day, in well doing; he must apply himself to purify his knowledge, and to clear it from those errors which imperceptibly mix with it. Thus the intelligent man will encrease his information, whilst he who is without understanding, the scoffer who flies from labour and application, and who occupies himself seldom, and inattentively, in the search of wisdom, *will not be* able to find it.'

The ability, which distinguishes M. Gellert's directions for the attainment of eminent moral worth, may be appreciated by the rules which we take from his seventh moral lesson:

'First, *Never begin any day without recollecting what are your occupations.* Assiduity is a duty, but it is also a happiness for you; make it then a pleasing necessity to yourself by exercising it, and by proposing virtue to yourself for your object. Apply yourself to study in the view of becoming a good man and useful to society, and congratulate yourself on possessing those talents, the good use of which is nearly connected with your happiness. Hitherto you have no employment, but the business of a youth is to fit himself for the employment he will one day be engaged in. To make a profitable use of time, of your opportunities, of the faculties of your soul and body, these are your present business. It is a very important function with which God has already charged you through the medium of your reason. Acquit yourself of it with zeal and fidelity, and be satisfied when you can testify to yourself, that you have done so at the end of each day, even supposing your application should not be attended with all the success you might desire, or that your genius and your progress in the sciences should not be equal to that of your companions in study. Your assiduity ought not to confine itself to making you more learned, but it must principally have in view, to make you a patient, laborious, conscientious young man, content with your condition, such as you may one day be in riper years, in old age, and in every period of your life, that it may be your protection from the dangers of idleness and vice. Employ yourself from the first of the morning in these thoughts, my dear Orestes, and let this idea of duty be to you as a guardian angel, to conduct you to labour, and to direct you in your occupations.

'Secondly, *Think on the recreations you may enjoy in the course of the day.* Say to yourself, shall I use them with moderation to gather from them new strength? Shall I enjoy them with thankfulness? Will it encrease my satisfaction to share them with others? Shall I know how to get the better of myself, if a taste for sensual pleasures solicits me to the commission of some excess? How shall I reap advantage from the comforts of society and friendship? Shall I be able to restrain myself from levity in my discourse, to season and temper the sallies of raillery? Shall I speak as I think, as a man of probity, and shall I be sincere without being indiscreet?

'Thirdly, *How am I to govern myself in regard to temptations, more or less powerful, to which I may be exposed?* I love to please, shall I in the course of the day procure to myself this advantage by flattery? I am given to raillery, shall I lay myself under no restraint on this subject?

subject? I may hear of some happy event which may form the happiness of another, shall I have greatness of mind enough to rejoice at it? Shall I think nobly enough not to envy it, even had it happened to one whom I know to be my enemy? I feel my temper sometimes disposed to be peevish and humoursome, shall I this day endeavour to hinder it from appearing? Shall I bear the faults of others, as I wish them to bear mine? I easily allow myself to be heated by anger in conversation: I will carefully abstain from this. Shall I take pleasure in female society, so as that neither their beauty, nor the charms of their conversation may become a snare to me, and that I may not carry from it any disposition which I should be unwilling to own to the man I most respect?

'Fourthly, *Disagreeable events and misfortunes may befal me.* Am I careful at the beginning of the day, to arm myself with courage, with patience, with submission to the wise decrees of Providence?

'I am mortal, yet destined to immortality. God is the disposer of my days. Perhaps their termination is not far off. Shall I be terrified at the idea? No: as long as I acquit myself of my duty, death is to me the beginning of a happiness, to the acquirement of which I joyfully consecrate my life, without fearing either its end or its prolongation. Perhaps some friend may offend me through weakness, more than from any deliberate design, shall I have indulgence for him? Some blow may be given to my reputation. I cannot be insensible to this: but still ought not I to esteem myself happy if I have not deserved it? Perhaps my health may suffer some attack. Shall I know how to moderate the uneasiness this may occasion me?

'Fifthly, *What thoughts shall employ my mind in solitude?* Probably reflections on what motives are best calculated to encourage me in the practice of some duty, which might appear to me to be difficult; on some sublime truth of religion, capable of elevating and strengthening the soul; on some passage in the writings of a poet or an orator, which may afford me an useful lesson, and lead me to act more conscientiously, inspire me with more affection for my fellow-creatures, and make me combat vice with more resolution. None of my retired and leisure moments shall be allowed to pass, without my meditating on the wonders of nature which heaven and earth display to my sight; without my being penetrated with gratitude on viewing the multiplicity of blessings bestowed on us by God; without admiring the striking appearances of his Providence, which supports and directs all things, and without representing strongly to my own mind death, judgment, and eternity, and drawing from thence principles of wisdom and contentment. Shall I not occupy myself in promoting the happiness of others, assist them with my advice, employ my mediation when requisite in their behalf, or at least, compassionate their sufferings? Shall I not deeply imprint on my mind that virtue is the most precious gift of Heaven, that it may and ought to constitute my happiness, and that it is not morose, even when it exacts the greatst efforts?"

If it be the reader's object to be surprized by subtil refinements, and fine-spun reasonings on points of morals, these

volumes will not fulfil his wishes: but, if it will gratify him to behold virtue drawn in an amiable and attractive light, and if it be his desire to have all the passions of his soul and all the energies of his nature engaged in its cause, he will set a high value on the labours of Professor Gellert: which, even under their present transmutation, retain much of the character of easy and flowing compositions.—We ought perhaps to mention that this version was undertaken by Mrs. Douglas for the benefit of her *adopted* grandson; and we can truly add that the design does honour to her judgment, since it was not easy to devise a better method of beneficially affecting his destinies in all their extent, than by giving to a work of so excellent a tendency a paramount claim on his attention.

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ART. II. *A Dissertation on Gout;* exhibiting a new View of the Origin, Nature, Cause, Cure, and Prevention, of that afflicting Disease; illustrated and confirmed by a variety of original and communicated Cases. By Robert Kinglake, M. D., Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, of the Physical Society of Gottingen, &c. &c. and Physician at Taunton. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray.

MANY diseases unhappily exist which the physician finds it impossible to conquer, in spite of all the resources of his art; and there are some few which he does not wish to cure, from an idea that the removal of the present would be productive of a more fatal evil. In this latter predicament, stands the Gout; which, by the almost unanimous consent of medical practitioners, has been considered as a salutary effort of the constitution to throw off some greater impending mischief; and consequently the utmost that it is deemed allowable to attempt is to moderate the violence of particular symptoms, or to confine the disease to certain parts of the body. This opinion had been forcibly called in question by Dr. Heberden in his Medical Commentaries, who argued with much ability against the popular doctrine on this subject: but it was reserved for Dr. Kinglake to unravel the whole mystery; to shew 'that Gout differs in no essential circumstance from common inflammation; that it is not a constitutional, but merely a local affection; that its genuine seat is exclusively in the ligamentous and tendinous structure; that its attack is never salutary; that it should neither be encouraged nor protracted; and that, if seasonably and appropriately treated, it is as easily remediable as inflammatory excitement on the muscular, cuticular, or any other description of organic texture.' Hence it would appear that our author has not only discovered a mode of practice adequate

quate to the removal of this deplorable disease, but that he has also been so peculiarly fortunate as to strike out a new and satisfactory theory to account for its phænomena, and to guide us in the application of our remedies.

Section I. though intitled '*origin of gout*,' seems to have no connection with the subject, but principally consists of declamation respecting the prejudices which are always entertained against those who attempt to introduce improvements into medicine.

The 2d section, on the '*nature and constitution of gout*,' enters more fully into the question, and gives the author ample scope for developing his hypothesis, and displaying his reasoning powers. He properly begins by a definition of the disease. 'Gout is a greater or less degree of inflammatory affection of the ligaments and tendons, induced by distempered excitability of those parts from various causes.' Our readers will observe that Dr. Kinglake includes the cause of gout in the definition of it; a plan which might lead a less enlightened pathologist into innumerable errors, in consequence of our acknowleged ignorance respecting the causes of disease.—As a farther elucidation of the definition, we are informed that the true nature of Gout 'consists of active inflammation, assuming every diversity which constitutional and temperamental conditions of life and health may impart to it.' We felt somewhat startled at a definition of Gout which seemed to place its essence in inflammation alone, and did not discriminate it from the other species of inflammation to which the joints are liable; and we were preparing to notice this deficiency, when, on a farther perusal, we discovered that this really is the doctrine maintained by the author. As our readers will probably be not less surprized than we were at this singular notion, we shall quote the entire paragraph, in order that they may be convinced that we neither misrepresent nor exaggerate:

'Different degrees of inflammatory affection of the ligaments and tendons have been erroneously supposed to be essentially distinct diseases, and have accordingly received such respective denominations, as have been held to be appropriate: thus an inflammation on those parts, arising from general causes, is at one time distinguished by the term rheumatism; at another, when the inflammatory irritation has resulted from external violence, particularly that of extension, it is named sprain. It will require no extraordinary skill in independent thinking, to perceive the perfect identity of these several nominal states of inflammation, and to refuse assent to the prevailing prejudice, that they are essentially different.'

By 'independent thinking,' Dr. Kinglake must mean thinking independent of reason and experience, for in no other way

can we account for the singularity of his opinions on this subject. Let us, however, candidly hear the grounds on which this speculation is founded:

'Experience bears ample testimony to the extreme difficulty of applying the prevailing ground of distinction between gout and rheumatism. Medical practitioners are often inextricably perplexed with the diagnostic phantom of gout and rheumatism. In consultation it becomes a subject of awful discussion. The irascible and bigotted are apt to dissent violently, sometimes indeed opprobriously; the demure more gravely; whilst the polite conformist compromises the difficulty, by denominating it rheumatic gout. Such puerilities surely are unworthy of medical science, and should not be tolerated in a philosophical age.'

It appears, then, that Dr. Kinglake finds it difficult to distinguish Rheumatism from Gout, and that sometimes these diseases are thought to be combined; on which account, to prevent any future uncertainty on the subject, he boldly pronounces them to be the same disease. This is a very summary kind of nosology, and may be convenient; yet we fear that it will scarcely be tolerated in this 'philosophical age.'

The author not only contends for the identity of Gout and Rheumatism, but for that of every other inflammation of a ligament or tendon, even though induced by external violence:

'The inflammation induced on the ligaments and tendons by external violence, and which is significantly termed sprain, discovers as strong an identity with gouty irritation, as occurs in rheumatic affection. The same parts are subjected to inflammatory excitement, and the same effects are consequently manifested. Exquisite pain, immobility of the affected joint, efflorescence, shining tumefaction, associative affection of other joints, and more or less of systematic irritation, at once characterize ligamentous and tendinous extension, called sprain, and present an imposing catalogue of either gouty or rheumatic symptoms.'

It will, however, be immediately asked by every person, how does the hypothesis of the author account for the affection of the stomach, which is generally conceived to be as essential to Gout as the inflammation of the limbs? Dr. Kinglake shall answer for himself:

'Constitutional gout would presuppose constitutional fabric of ligament and tendon, in a state of inflammatory action from excessive excitement. The physical conditions, or requisite structure, therefore, to give effect to what is strictly understood by gouty inflammation, can only be found in the joints. What is erroneously termed gout in the system, is no more than distempered excitability, whether occurring originally or symptomatically, which may be concentrated or determined on the articular fabric, where it may be considered as an aggravation of the disease, by increasing the previous degree of painful irritation, and in no instance to be remedial.'

In

In plain language, the Doctor defines gout to be an inflammation in the ligaments or tendons: but the stomach has no ligament, nor tendon; therefore the stomach can never be affected by gout. Notwithstanding, however, that he may be led by his peculiar hypothesis to suppose that *Gout* cannot exist in the stomach, yet certainly he must admit that a state of this organ is induced, by whatever name it may be called, which is highly dangerous, and often fatal. He is not, however, so soon daunted; and he boldly asserts that 'visceral participation in gouty excitement loses its ideal terror, by rejecting the groundless prejudice by which its quality and danger have been estimated.'

Proceeding on the idea that gout is merely an inflammation of the ligaments and tendons, possessing nothing specific in its nature or character, Dr. K. next describes the effects which it produces on the diseased part; and, among other circumstances, he explains at some length the manner in which the substances called chalk-stones are formed. As far as we can detect his meaning, from under the cloud of words in which it is veiled, he appears to imagine that the vessels, which bring the bony matter to the joints, are compelled to discharge their contents on the surface, in consequence of the inflamed state of the neighbouring parts. We have, however, one objection to urge against this ingenious speculation; viz. that the matter, of which chalk stones consist, is composed of the lithic acid and soda; whereas the earth of bones is composed of phosphoric acid and lime. Perhaps Dr. K. may have discovered some method of converting the phosphate of lime into the lithate of soda, but this is not stated in the work before us.—We close our notice of this section by quoting the account of the nature of inflammation, which, says Dr. K. 'is a sort of combustive state of vital motion, and may be aptly compared to fire, which, with whatever fuel kindled, burns with identical heat.' The reader will, no doubt, be at a loss to decide whether he should most admire the perspicuity or the eloquence of this passage.

The 3d section relates to the '*remote and proximate cause of gout.*' Rejecting the idea of there being any thing specific in its nature, Dr. K. remarks that 'the sanctioned doctrines of medical schools, as well as popular prejudice, would consider an attempt to assimilate the effects of a sprained joint with gout, as but little short of sacrilegious innovation; as trifling with the holy mystery of inscrutable disease, and rendering great things little indeed. Such declamation may be sounding, but it is nonsensical, without either point or authority, without any just regard for true science and its liberal investigation.'

tion.'—Since the Doctor considers the disease as a simple inflammation of the part, possessed of no peculiar characteristics, we did not expect to find that he admits it to be hereditary; yet such we apprehend to be the meaning of the following paragraph, when stripped of its superfluous coat of *verbiage*:

'However gouty inflammation may have been repeatedly produced, whether by external violence, the gradual formation of altered structure, or local excess of distempered excitability on the ligamentous, tendinous, and fascial parts, the morbid changes induced, will at length become so radically influential in the motive powers of the system, as to generate a transmittable state of temperamental susceptibility for morbid affection. The offspring in such diseased circumstances, will possess constitutional powers equal to the ordinary functions of health, but yet accompanied with a temperamental disposition to the disease. In these instances, gouty excitability may be said to be hereditary.'

Among the causes of gout, we were surprized to meet with what is elegantly styled, 'plenitude resulting from dietetic excess;' for though every one, either medical or unmedical, knows this to be the case, yet it is so absolutely contrary to the idea of the state of the stomach being only remotely connected with the disease, that we concluded that this circumstance would have been overlooked.

At length, we arrive at the proximate cause of gout: but this we shall not presume to lay before the reader except in the words of the author; and indeed, for a reason which will be sufficiently obvious, we could not convey it in any others:

'This efficiency or proximate cause, by which the disease is constituted, consists in an agitated and an increased degree of vital or repulsive motion in the affected part.'

We subjoin the author's explanation of vital motion:

'By vital motion is meant a repellency, subsisting between the constituent particles of all matter. This innate power or property is, by a law of nature, spontaneously evolved from atomical surfaces, and assumes character and determinal force, when issuing from the congeries, or combination of material substances, which forms specific or particular structure.'

To some of our readers, we fear, this will be "confusion worse confounded."—The speculation appears to be so completely novel, that we shall indulge in a farther quotation, in which Dr. Kinglake seems to have concentrated all his force:

'The exertion of this universally repellent power, in the organic fabric of the animal economy, is life, or vital motion. The action of this power denotes itself in animal feeling as heat; an undistinguishable

able identity, therefore, with respect to the object, subsists between what has been variously denominated repulsive motion, vital action, and heat. These several modes of the same thing arise from the different circumstances, in which it is operative. Repulsive motion is the natural efficiency of matter, and universally pervades every conceivable atom; vital motion is the organic efficiency of matter, and heat is the impression only, which that power makes on animal sensation.'

If these paragraphs possess any meaning, it is that the accumulation of caloric in the diseased part constitutes the immediate cause of gout; and the author congratulates himself on the very happy method in which the theory and practice correspond, 'unique indeed in the catalogue of diseases.' If the disease be caused by the accumulation of heat, the obvious way of removing it is by the application of cold; and indeed the proposal of this remedy constitutes the principal object, and certainly the only merit of the performance.

In the 4th section, on the '*cure of gout*,' the plan of treatment which was before intimated is more completely developed; and it consists in the universal and unqualified recommendation of cold, particularly of cold water, to the inflamed part. To the affections of the stomach, the author attaches so little importance in the theory of the disease, that we were not surprized at his neglecting them in the plan of cure. Dr. Kinglake cannot be accused of inconsistency; considering all topical inflammations as being radically the same, he advises the same remedies for them all, and feelingly laments the prejudices of those who adopt a different treatment:

'It is on this crooked principle, that scalds and burns are attempted to be remedied by exposure to fire, and the application of spirit of turpentine; that sprains are treated with stimulant applications; that recent incisions, and contusions, are washed with spirituous embrocations; and that gangrenous inflammation is subjected to the excitant impression of effervescing and fermentative poultices.'

Section V. on the '*prevention of gout*,' is principally devoted to a recommendation of temperance; and we perfectly agree with the author in the propriety of this advice, though we feel at a loss to know in what manner it can be reconciled with the former part of his doctrine.—In the 6th section, we have a '*Recapitulation*,' in the form of propositions; in which he still more distinctly states his ideas of the local nature of gout, and of the identity of all the different kinds of inflammation. We shall quote the 26th proposition, because it explains in a singularly luminous manner the peculiarities of Dr. Kinglake's hypothesis:

'The

'The proximate cause of gout is the aggregate efficiency of the remote causes, or the disease itself. It is founded in an excess of heat or repulsive motion generated and evolved from simple and compound atomical surfaces: thus perfect identity with respect to the object subsists between the various denominations, repulsive motion, vital action, and heat. Repulsive motion obtains universally between atoms or corpuscles; vital motion in organic structure; and heat is the impression, or effect, which this repulsive motion makes on the sensorial principle of the animal economy. The excess of heat, then, is the proximate cause of gouty excitement; and consequently its due reduction, its direct, speedy, and effectual cure.'

To the body of the work is affixed a copious Appendix, consisting of a number of cases which have been treated in the manner here suggested; many of them furnished by respectable practitioners. It would lead us far beyond our accustomed limits to enter into a minute examination of these cases: but we must observe that, for the most part, they undoubtedly record but slight attacks, and such as it might be supposed would have subsided without any remedies. Some few of them, however, were of more moment; and we think that they justify us in advising that the application of cold should be *cautiously* tried, though we cannot assent to the *unqualified* manner in which it is urged by the author; which we regard as *highly dangerous*.

With respect to the execution of this work, we need say but little. Our readers may judge, from the specimens that have been given, as well of Dr. Kinglake's talent at theorizing as of the nature of his style; both are indeed extremely objectionable. We condemn still more, however, the arrogant and illiberal spirit which is manifested against all those who presume to differ from the author, and to conceive that gout and rheumatism are not the same disease, or that gout may attack the stomach. A man who undertakes to subvert opinions which have been adopted for ages, should admit the possibility, at least, that all the world may be right, and that he himself is in an error.

Some pamphlets on this subject will appear in the Medical class of the *Catalogue* part of this Review.

ART. III. *System of Mineralogy*, comprehending Oryctognosie, Geognosie, Mineralogical Chemistry, Mineralogical Geography, and Œconomical Mineralogy. By Robert Jameson, Regius Professor of Natural History, and Keeper of the Museum in the University of Edinburgh, &c. &c. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 662. 14s. Boards. Constable and Co., Edinburgh; Longman and Co., London.

WE have frequently had occasion to remark, that the scientific arrangement of fossil substances has by no means acquired that degree of precision and that consistency which have so much facilitated the study of botany and zoology. The subjects of the mineral kingdom are, in fact, less susceptible of accurate discrimination than plants or animals, of which the peculiar modes of organization present clear and distinct characters. Unfortunately, also, the spirit of theory has mingled with the most celebrated attempts to establish a permanent nomenclature; and divisions have been instituted and multiplied without any proper basis of arrangement.

The distribution by crystals possesses the advantage of geometrical precision in all cases to which its principles extend: but many of the compound substances, which are not crystallized, are unavoidably thrown into an Appendix; several even of the crystallized sorts have integrant molecules of the same figure: while others, composed of the very same constituents, present us with different molecules. It may be added that few individuals can bestow that leisure and that minuteness of investigation, which the science of crystallography demands of its votaries.

The Wernerian method is at least more plausible and comprehensive, because it proceeds chiefly on the distinctions of external characters; thus including, in some one of its genera, species, or varieties, a definition of every known mineral substance. On a nearer inspection, however, and in its practical applications, this boasted instrument of the Freyberg school is found to be far from simple, and very inadequate to the purposes of its destination. The vagueness of many of the characters, and the geological assumptions on which some of the leading distinctions are founded, consitute, in our apprehension, very serious objections to its general adoption.

Professor Jameson, nevertheless, at no ordinary expence of zeal and diligence, and undismayed by obstacles, seems firmly resolved to promulgate in his native country the cumbersome catalogues and descriptions of his German master. A neat outline of Werner's system might, as an object of scientific curiosity, form an acceptable present to the English public: but its heavy exposition, detailed in several massy octavos, will

will probably repel the most intrepid readers. In spite of the dreariness of the task, we should consider ourselves as required to present a succinct analysis of the present portion of Mr. Jameson's lucubrations, did it not in a great measure coincide, if not in elegance of execution, yet in matter and arrangement, with the first volume of Brochant's work, which we have already noticed *.

The Professor, in his preface, gives a short and rather uninteresting sketch of some of the most celebrated mineralogists. The names, however, are not always set down in chronological order, and an obvious anachronism occurs relative to the publications of Bromel and Becker. The Introduction presents us with a summary view of the system; and it is followed by a tabular catalogue, in which we remark several material omissions, and some very unnecessary singularities in orthography.

Agreeably to the Wernerian plan, Mr. Jameson divides his subject into four classes; viz. earthy fossils, fossil salts, inflammable fossils, and metallic fossils: of which the first only is included in the present volume. The Genera which are explained are denominated Diamond, Zircon, Flint, Clay, Talc, *Calc*, Baryte, and Strontiane.

A single extract, which we select at random, will shew the author's manner of treating the species and the *sub-species*—an aukward category, which frequently occurs in the Wernerian classification. The seventh species under the Clay Genus is Felspar; or, as the author remarks, more properly Feldspar:

'Feldspath.—*Werner.*

'This species is divided by Werner into four subspecies, 1. Compact felspar, 2. Common felspar, 3. Adularia, 4. Labrador stone.

'FIRST SUBSPECIES.

'Compact Felspar.

'Dichter Feldspath.—*Werner.*

'*Id. Wid.* p. 345.—Continuous felspar, *Kirw.* vol. 1. p. 323.—Felsite, *Id.* p. 326.—Dichter feldstein, *Estner*, b. 2. s. 511. *Id. Emm.* b. 1. s. 271.—Felspato compatto, *Nap.* p. 218.—Feldspath compacte bleu, *Hauy*, t. 2. p. 615.—Le feldspatch compacte, *Broch.* t. 1. p. 367.

'*External Characters.*

'Its colours are grey, white, blue, green, and red. The varieties of white are greenish and greyish white: Of grey, greenish smoke and ash grey; from greenish grey it passes into apple green, pistacio green, even into mountain green; further into sky blue and smalt blue; it occurs also flesh red and blood red.

* See Rev. Vol. xlii. N. S. p. 463. *Appendix.*

'Occurs massive, disseminated, in rolled pieces, and in crystals which are imbedded in antique green porphyry.

'Internally its lustre is sometimes glistening, sometimes glimmering.

'Fracture at first sight appears to be only splintery, but when carefully examined we find it also to be very fine grained, or imperfectly and very small foliated.

'Fragments indeterminately angular, and not particularly sharp edged.

'It sometimes presents fine grained distinct concretions.

'Translucent, but sometimes only on the edges.
Pretty hard, but in a low degree.
Easily frangible.
Not particularly heavy.

'*Chemical Character.*

'It is fusible without addition before the blow pipe.

'*Geognostic Situation.*

'It is one of the constituent parts of primitive, transition, and floetz greenstone, also of greenstone slate, and is imbedded in crystals in antique porphyry.

'*Geographic Situation.*

'It is found in Saxony, the Tyrol, Carinthia; in Scotland, at the Pentland hills and Salisbury craigs near Edinburgh; Coriarich in Invernesshire, and many other places.

'*Observations.*

'On account of its splintery fracture, and slight degree of lustre, it used to be considered as a variety of hornstone; even the late intelligent Mr. Dolomieu continued to name it petrosilex. Werner considers it as a subspecies of felspar, because 1. It occurs most generally along with quartz and mica, thus assuming as it were the place of common felspar. 2. It has combined with the splintery a foliated fracture. 3. It passes into common felspar. 4. It occurs crystallized in antique green porphyry. 5. It melts without addition before the blow pipe.

'SECOND SUBSPECIES.

'Common Felspar.

'Gemeiner Feldspath.—*Werner.*

'Werner divides it into two kinds: *a.* Fresh felspar, *b.* Disintegrated felspar.

'FIRST KIND.

'Fresh felspar.

'Frischer feldspath—*Werner.*

Spathum scintillans, *Wall.* t. 1. p. 214.—Feldspath, *Wid.* p. 335. *Ibid. R. d. L.* t. 2. p. 445.—Common felspar, *Kirw.* vol. 1. p. 316—Blättrig Feldstein, *Estner,* b. 1. s. 513. Gemeiner feldspath, *Emm.* b. 1. s. 266.—Feldispato commune, *Nap.* p. 213.—Feldspath, *Lam.* t. 2. p. 187, *Ibid. Hauy,* t. 2. p. 590.—Le Feldspath commun. *Broch.* t. 1. p. 362.

'*External*

'*External Characters.*

'Its colours are white, red, grey, and green. Of white it presents the following varieties; greyish, milk, yellowish, greenish, and reddish white: the greyish white rarely passes into smoke grey and blueish grey. Of red the following varieties occur, flesh, blood, *and sometimes verges on* brick red. From greenish white it passes into asparagus green, leek green, mountain green, even into verdegris green, but this latter is a rare variety.

'The greenish white variety borders on adularia, and the edges have a reddish shade.

'It occurs most commonly massive, disseminated, in angular pieces, in rolled pieces, and grains; also frequently crystallized. The following are its principal figures.

'1. Broad six-sided prism, nearly equally bevilled on both extremities, and the bevilling planes set on those lateral edges which are formed by the smaller lateral planes. Sometimes the acute lateral edges are truncated, sometimes also bevilled; the obtuse edges are also in some instances truncated.

'2. Very oblique four-sided prism, flatly bevilled on the extremities, and the bevilling planes set on the obtuse lateral edges. When the prism becomes short, and two obliquely opposite bevilling planes increase so much as to cause the others to disappear, a rhomboid is formed.

'3. Rectangular four-sided prism, acuminated by four planes which are set on the lateral edges; the summit of the acuminations and lateral edges of the prism are sometimes truncated.

'The crystals occur sometimes in twin crystals, and sometimes *scalar-wise* aggregated.

'The twin crystals are formed in different ways; one variety is conceived to be formed by two crystals being side-wise pushed into each other; and in another, or what has been called hemitrope, the crystal is supposed to be divided into two, and one half turned completely around and applied to the other, so that a re-entering angle is formed at the one extremity, and a salient angle at the other.

'The crystals are small and middle sized, (particularly the four and six-sided prisms) often all around crystallised in druses.

'Externally its lustre is shining; internally the principal fracture is shining approaching to splendent, cross fracture is glimmering, and both are vitreous, inclining a little to pearly.

'Fracture more or less perfectly straight foliated, two-fold cleavage, and the folia cross each other at right angles. Cross fracture fine grained uneven, passing into splintery; parallel with this fracture we observe rents that cut the other cleavages obliquely, so that the fragments are somewhat rhomboidal. Sometimes the foliated is a little curved foliated, and is seldom floriformly foliated, which passes into a kind of diverging broad radiated.

'Occurs in large, coarse, and small grained distinct concretions.

'More or less translucent.

Pretty hard*.

'* Scratches glass.—*Hauy.*'

Brittle.

Brittle.
Easily frangible.
Not particularly heavy.

'Specific gravity—From 2,272 to 2,594.—According to *Hauy*, from 2,4378 to 2,7045.

'For the geognostic and geographic characters see the end of the following description.

'*Chemical Characters.*

'It melts without addition before the blowpipe into a white glass.

'*Constituent Parts.*

Silica .	62,83	64,0	67,0	43,0	79,0	70
Alumina	17,02	21,0	14,0	37,05	16,0	12
Lime	3,00	6,25		1,70	2,3	
Oxyd of Iron	1,00	2,0		4,0		
Potash	13,00					
Baryt			11,0			8
Magnesia			8,0			9
Loss		3,75				
	96,85		100	85,72	97,3	99
	Vauquelin.*	*Chenevix.*	*Kirwan.*	*Saussure.*	*Meyer.*	*Hassenf.*

'SECOND KIND.

'Disintegrated felspar.

'Aufgelöster feldspath.—*Werner.*

'Its colour is yellowish and reddish white, which sometimes verges on grey.

'Occurs massive, disseminated, and in imbedded crystals, resembling in figure those of fresh felspar.

'Internally its lustre alternates between glistening, glimmering, and dull.

'Fracture in some varieties is imperfectly foliated, passing into earthy; in others it is intermediate between uneven, which approaches to splintery, and earthy.

'Fragments indeterminately angular, blunt edged.

'It has a tendency to distinct concretions, but this only when it is passing to fresh.

'Only a little translucent on the edges, generally opaque.

'Soft, passing into very soft: also semi-hard
Easily frangible.
Not particularly heavy.

'*Observations.*

'1. The disintegrated condition of this kind of felspar is owing in many instances to weathering; but it is also highly probable that it is often originally formed in a similar state.

'2. It is the link which connects felspar with porcelain clay.

'* Vauquelin's experiments were made on the green coloured Siberian felspar.'

'3. We

'3. We observe a diminishing fusibility from common felspar through disintegrated felspar to procelain clay, which depends, according to Werner, on the relative proportion of alkali in each.

'*Geognostic Situation of common felspar.*

'It is one of the most abundant of fossils. It forms a constituent part of granite and gneiss; it occurs also in sienite, in greenstone, and in imbedded crystals in porphyry, basalt, and porphyry slate. It also occurs in beds and kidneys in primitive mountains, and in veins of the oldest formation.

'*Geographic Situation of common felspar.*

'It is so universally distributed that we shall only mention the localities of a few of the most remarkable varieties. The beautiful green coloured variety is found in Siberia; the twin crystals are found very fine at Baveno, and near to Carsbad in Bohemia; the floriformly foliated in Saxony and the island of Arran; the curved foliated in Sweden, and it is found in uncommonly large distinct concretions in the island of Rona, one of the Hebrides.'

This quotation is less deformed than many passages which might be specified, with errors of the press and phrases of peculiar harshness. What ear, that is tuned to the harmony of the English language, can patiently endure such uncouth combinations of terms as the following?—*not particularly difficultly frangible; a perfect obliquely intersecting threefold cleavage; acuminated on both extremities by three planes, that are unconformably-wise set on the alternate lateral planes; parallelly double, and spongiform circularly cellular, fortification-wise bent lamellar distinct concretions; fracture delicately and coarsely promiscuous fibrous, and narrow; scopiformly diverging radiated; seldom parallelly radiated; scalar-wise; scopiformly, and globularly aggregated*, &c. &c. We are by no means enamoured of the author's darling terms *Geognosie* and *Oryctognosie*; nor of the many rugged and motley epithets which he intersperses, and which, we trust, will not be allowed to pass as current English.

Yet, whatever may be the Professor's disregard of style and composition, we may, in most instances, rely on the accuracy of his statements. We wish, however, that he had not so confidently repeated his master's errors relative to the matrix of ruby, zircon, and spinelle; and that he had not asserted, in such unqualified terms, that the aqueous origin of basalt is now *universally admitted.* His list of localities is peculiarly meagre and deficient. The mystery with which he affects to mention the aluminous schistus at Whitby, our common fuller's earth, and the alum quarries at Tolfa, borders on the ludicrous. Many of the modifications and improvements of which his favourite system is susceptible, and which have been proposed or adopted by able mineralogists, are passed over un-

noticed; and names justly dear to science are too often thrown into the shade. In the future stages of the publication, it will afford us sincere satisfaction, if we can assure the public that Mr. Jameson's correctness, elegance, and candour are not inferior to his zeal and industry. Of his genius and intellect, we should have augured more favourably, if, instead of hugging the fetters of an unwieldy system, he had devised a method of his own; constructed on principles more simple and philosophical, and less connected with preconceived opinions.

Muir.

ART. IV. *Surgical Observations*, &c. By John Abernethy, F.R.S. Assistant Surgeon to St. Bartholomew's Hospital, &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE zeal which Mr. Abernethy has exhibited in the improvement of his profession, and the great degree of success with which his exertions have been crowned, caused us to take up this volume with high expectations; and we can assure our readers that those expectations have not been disappointed. His observations are marked with that precision which can only be attained by an original observer; and the whole exhibits a display of judgment and candor, which indicate not merely great professional skill, but a well stored and comprehensive understanding.

In the first part of the work, however, which consists of 'an attempt to form a classification of tumors according to their anatomical structure,' Mr. Abernethy commences by a definition of these substances; on which, as conveying an idea different from that which is generally adopted, we must take the liberty of making some observations. He says: 'I shall restrict the surgical signification of the word "Tumour" to such swellings as arise from some new production, which made no part of the original composition of the body; and by this means I shall exclude all simple enlargements of bones, joints, glands, &c.' This definition appears to us in many respects objectionable; it involves an hypothesis respecting the formation of tumors; it establishes a criterion of their existence which it must be in many, perhaps in most cases, impossible to employ in actual practice; and it separates from each other, diseases that require the same treatment and remedies. Mr. Abernethy derives his hypothesis respecting the formation of tumors from an observation made by Mr. Hunter, concerning the origin of such as are of a pendulous structure; in which, a portion of coagulated blood remaining attached to the surface by a slender neck, and the neighbouring vessels elongating themselves through

through this neck into the tumor, a substance is formed, which thus becomes a distinct living part, possessed of specific properties. As far, however, as we can learn from the work before us, the remark of Mr. Hunter appears only to have attached to pendulous tumors, whereas Mr. Abernethy applies it to all species indiscriminately. 'There can be little doubt (he observes) but that tumours form every where in the same manner. The coagulable part of the blood being either accidentally effused, or deposited in consequence of disease, becomes afterwards an organized and living part, by the growth of the adjacent vessels and nerves into it.' We can by no means admit this extension of the hypothesis, even should we be inclined to favour it so far as it respects pendulous tumors; and we lament that this preconceived speculation should have induced the author to restrict his definition in what we cannot but consider as an unnatural manner. We think that this circumstance is the more to be regretted, as Mr. Abernethy has not pointed out any diagnostics, founded on external characters, by which we can discriminate between what he calls tumors, and simple enlargements of natural parts.

Supposing the origin of tumors to depend on the effusion of the coagulable portion of the blood, it becomes a question of great practical moment, to determine what is the state of the neighbouring parts; whether it be the effect of accident or common inflammation, or whether it may proceed from some diseased action in the surrounding vessels:

'In the former cases, (Mr. A. remarks) the parts surrounding the tumour may be considered simply as the sources from which it derives its nutriment, whilst it grows apparently by its own inherent powers, and its organization depends upon actions begun and existing in itself. If such a tumour be removed, the surrounding parts, being sound, soon heal, and a complete cure ensues But if a tumour be removed, whose existence depended on the disease of the surrounding parts which are still left, and this disease be not altered by the stimulus of the operation, no benefit is obtained: these parts again produce a diseased substance, which has generally the appearance of fungus, and, in consequence of being irritated by the injury of the operation, the disease is in general increased by the means which were designed for its cure. It appears therefore that in some cases of tumours, the newly formed part alone requires removal, whilst in others the surrounding substance must be taken away, or a radical cure cannot be effected.'

Some preliminary observations on tumors in general are offered, before we proceed to the consideration of the different species of them. It is taken for granted that there must always be a state of increased action in the neighbouring vessels, and that the first object will be to repress this unnatural condition;

condition; which is most effectually done by the abstraction of blood and heat from the diseased part. Blood is best removed by leeches, and the increased temperature by the application of folded linen, wetted with sedative lotions. 'The effect of this last mode of treatment,' the author says, 'is much more considerable than at first sight might be supposed. It operates on parts far beneath the surface. As heat is so transmissable a substance, so in proportion as the temperature of the skin is diminished by evaporation, it derives heat from the subjacent parts, and thus are their morbid actions lessened.' When by these means the growth of the tumor is suspended, we are next to attempt its absorption; and for this purpose we are to employ stimulants. Mr. Abernethy observes that the use of stimulants, before the increased action is diminished, would be injurious, in the same way in which a blister is hurtful in pleurisy, before the requisite evacuations have been employed. To the propriety of this advice, and to the soundness of the doctrine on which it is founded, we in general assent; though we think that it admits of many exceptions, and will often be difficult to reduce to practice;—in the present work, we meet with no observations which can assist us in discriminating between these opposite states.

We now enter on the proper subject of the essay. Considering tumors as an order in the class of local diseases, Mr. A. distributes them into genera; to the first of which, including such tumors as have 'a firm and fleshy feel,' the title of *Sarcoma* is given. The sarcomatous tumors are then divided into several species, which are as follow: common vascular or organized, adepose, pancreatic, cystic, mastoid or mammary, tuberculated, medullary, and carcinomatous sarcoma. These different species of tumors are successively described, and observations are added respecting their origin and treatment; the whole comprehending a body of valuable information, and displaying to great advantage the talents of Mr. Abernethy, as an accurate and judicious observer. With respect to the importance of this classification in a practical point of view, we fear that much is not to be expected: indeed, at the very outset, we are informed that it is only from their internal structure that the different species of sarcomatous tumors can be designated from each other; their external characters not being sufficiently marked, to allow of their being employed as the basis of the arrangement. We can only, therefore, consider Mr. Abernethy's attempt as a mere system of nomenclature, by means of which we may acquire a greater degree of precision in our language, and may thus be enabled to arrange future observations more systematically.—The other genera of

tumors are the encysted and the osseous; which are not subdivided into species, and are treated in a much less ample manner than the first genus of sarcoma: it appears, indeed, as if the author had left his original plan incomplete.

The account of the carcinomatous tumors is particularly valuable, and seems to have especially engaged Mr. Abernethy's attention. He divides his remarks on it into three heads; 1st, the history of carcinoma, 2dly, its anatomical structure, and 3dly, he compares it with other diseases which resemble it. The disease commences in a small spot, and extends in all directions like rays from a centre; and its progress, even when slow, is unremitting; for the author is inclined to think that, though it may be checked, it can never be made 'to recede by that medical treatment which lessens the bulk of other saccomatous tumors.' This opinion, however, he advances with a degree of hesitation.—It is remarked, as a striking peculiarity of carcinoma, that, whatever be the nature of the contiguous parts, it has the power of exciting them to a diseased action, similar to that by which it is itself affected.

Mr. Abernethy discusses the important question, 'whether a disease not originally cancerous can become so in its progress?' The analogy of scrofula and syphilis would lead to the conclusion that such an alteration of diseased action might take place: but he conceives that experience has not confirmed this inference. The impeded state of the respiration, which generally occurs in the last stages of carcinoma, he inclines to attribute to an affection of the liver, which is almost universally present in this period of the disease.

With respect to the anatomical structure of carcinoma, the circumstance which most commonly claims attention is the intermixture of a number of firm whitish bands, which sometimes diverge from the centre like radii, and at other times intersect it in an irregular manner. This peculiarity leads to an important practical consequence; for by inspecting the substance after it has been removed by an operation, we may discover whether any of these bands have been cut through, and consequently whether any part of the diseased structure has been left behind. In speaking of the affections which resemble carcinoma, the author proceeds with his usual candor; he points out some morbid appearances that strongly resemble the symptoms of this disease, and leaves it for future observations to decide how far their identity can be established.

Before we quit the consideration of this part of Mr. Abernethy's volume, we must be permitted to express our regret that he has not taken more notice of the works of his fellow-labourers in this department. On the subject of cancer particularly,

ticularly, opinions have been entertained so opposite to each other, and leading to such contrary modes of practice, that we should have felt much gratified by hearing the judgment formed of them by a person so well qualified to decide as Mr. Abernethy. We also consider it as incumbent on those who aim at improving any branch of science, to introduce some mention of the attempts that have been made by others in the same way; it is not only interesting to mark the gradual progression of knowlege, but it may serve materially to direct the steps of future inquirers.

The second of these essays treats 'on diseases resembling syphilis'. It is well known that Mr. Hunter, in his treatise on the venereal disease, related some cases which, though they bore a very striking resemblance to this complaint, both in their symptoms and in the mode of their production, yet were concluded to be of a different nature, because they were cured without the exhibition of mercury. This train of anomalous symptoms has particularly engaged the attention of Mr. Abernethy; and in the present volume, he not only establishes the observations of his predecessor, but shews it to be a much more frequent occurrence than had been previously suspected.

We naturally enter on the subject by inquiring how we are to distinguish cases of real syphilis from these spurious instances? but to this query we are unfortunately at present unable to afford a satisfactory reply. The symptoms of the newly observed disease so accurately resemble those of syphilis, that no points of discrimination have hitherto been detected; it appears to be produced by impure connection, it attacks the same parts of the body, and affects them in the same manner; in short, it only differs from the proper venereal disease by the train of symptoms occurring in a somewhat different order, and by its being removed without the use of mercury. We are hence led to ask how far we are warranted in the position that true syphilis is never cured without the use of mercury? We confess that the whole body of experience and observation is in favour of this opinion: but, at the same time, it must be remarked that the cases to which Mr. Abernethy's essay refers have been confounded with syphilis, and have therefore been considered as diseases for the cure of which mercury was necessary; so that the current doctrine appears to have been erroneous, at least in one respect. In other cases, we certainly should not rest our judgment of the non-identity of two diseases on the operation of remedies, in opposition to the obvious appearance of the symptoms. The only method, in our opinion, of establishing this point, will be to ascertain whether this disease, when communicated to others, will retain its anomalous

character, or become the genuine syphilis.—Our readers will perceive, from the subsequent quotation, that we have not stated the question unfairly:

'Since, then, our senses fail us in our endeavours to discriminate between these two diseases, and since the most important circumstance is to distinguish whether the disease be venereal or not, we may inquire whether there are any circumstances in the progress of these different diseases which will serve us in distinguishing one from the other. It appears to me that there are; and these cases are published not merely to shew the frequency of such occurrences, and the necessity for discrimination; but to engage a more general attention to the means by which such distinction may be made. A very simple fact has enabled me in most cases to distinguish between the two diseases; yet, simple as it is, if it be generally true it is very important; and if it were universally true, it would be of the highest consequence. The fact alluded to is, that the constitutional symptoms of the venereal disease are generally progressive, and never disappear unless medicine be employed. It may be added too, they are as generally relieved under an adequate effect of mercury on the constitution.'

We apprehend that, in the minds of some persons, the doctrine here supported by Mr. Abernethy will be deemed inconsistent with the confession which he afterward makes, that true venereal chancres may heal spontaneously, or without the employment of mercury:

'The rule which has been mentioned relates to the constitutional spmptoms of the venereal disease, for the primary ones, chancres, do sometimes heal spontaneously, generally however, though not constantly, leaving a thickening or induration of the affected part. They may also be induced to heal by topical means, without mercury, with similar events. Some enlargements of glands in the groin will also in like manner subside.'

The context would imply that Mr. Abernethy conceives these enlargements of the glands to be venereal.

After all, the most important subject of investigation is to ascertain the effect of mercury in these anomalous cases:

'The effect of exciting a mercurial affection of the constitution in diseases resembling syphilis is, as far as my observation enables me to determine, very various. It sometimes cures them very suddenly and very differently from the gradual amendment which it produces in truly venereal diseases. Sometimes, however, these diseases yield more slowly to its operation, and are cured permanently. Sometimes the diseases recur in the same parts after a severe course of mercury; sometimes mercury merely checks the disease, and can scarcely be said to cure it; in which case it seems important to support the strength of the constitution, and to keep up that mercurial effect which controuls the disease, and can be borne without material derangement of the constitution for a great length of time. Sometimes also the use of mercury aggravates these diseases.'

It

It might have been expected that some light would have been thrown on this subject, by an attention to the appearance of the primary sores, but here we are disappointed. The appearance of chancres, acknowleged to be venereal, is allowed to be so different, that we are frequently obliged to form our opinion respecting them principally from concomitant circumstances; while, in like manner, the primary ulcers which produce this anomalous disease are so various in their appearance, as to afford no certain indication of their nature. The following concession of Mr. Abernethy appears to complete the perplexity of the subject:

'In some constitutions, the venereal disease may assume unusual characters, and be very difficult of cure. It must then be scarcely possible to discriminate between these anomalous cases of syphilis and those of diseases resembling it, unless some new distinctions are discovered.'

At present, then, the question seems to remain in this state. There is a disease which in its symptoms exactly resembles syphilis, but is not cured by mercury; syphilis itself is not always distinguishable by its symptoms; and although its constitutional effects cannot be removed without mercury, yet in some cases this medicine will not relieve them. In this uncertainty, how is the practitioner to proceed? Mr. A. prudently advises, 'that surgeons are not to confide in their powers of discrimination, but in all cases of ulcers arising from impure intercourse to act as if the sore was venereal, to give sufficient mercury slighty to affect the constitution, to guard against the consequences of absorption, and, by local and other general means, to cure as quickly as possible the local disease, and thus remove the source of contamination, and the necessity for the continuance of medicine.'

The remaining contents of this volume consist of remarks on injuries of the head, on aneurism, on the operation of puncturing the urinary bladder, on the Tic Doloreux, and on the removal of loose substances from the knee joint. The observations principally refer to cases illustrative of these different subjects, which are related by the author in his usual style of excellence. As the limits to which we are restricted will not permit us to criticize them individually, we shall only observe that they display much firmness of mind, tempered with judgment and candor, and are all worthy of the most attentive perusal.

We cannot conclude this article without expressing our regret, that a little more attention has not been bestowed on the style in which so much valuable information is conveyed. It is frequently aukward and careless, and sometimes so inaccurate as to throw a degree of uncertainty over the meaning of the author.

author. The latter part of the essay on tumors, as we before remarked, appears incomplete; and the essay on the diseases resembling syphilis, which is now divided into two parts, written as we are informed at different times, might be improved by being new-modelled, and having the matter incorporated into one regular series.

Bos.

ART. V. *The History of Canada*, from its first Discovery, comprehending an Account of the original Establishment of the Colony of Louisiana. Vol. I. By George Heriot, Esq, Deputy Post-Master General of British America, &c. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IT is acknowleged by the author that this work is almost wholly taken from Charlevoix's *Hist. de la Nouv. France:* and indeed so much has this been the case, that we find in these pages not merely the facts of the industrious historian, but the undisguised sentiments of the pious father. The harsh observations on the Hugunots, who were concerned in the first establishment of the colony, are not unnatural in the volumes of the French Jesuit, but they appear somewhat strange and improper in those of the subject of a Protestant king.

The establishment in Canada, at one time, it appears, had been vested by royal grant in two Protestants. At that period, however, the colony being weak, and various disasters having befallen it, though no blame was laid to the charge of the proprietors, its situation was represented to Cardinal de Richelieu, and he assigned it over to a large company. We are not told that the former Grantees surrendered their rights, nor that any compensation was made or even offered to them; on the contrary, circumstances are stated whence we may collect that no idea of that sort entered the mind of the arbitrary minister; and under the new order of things, none but catholics were allowed to join the colony. It may surprize the reader when we add that unqualified praise is here bestowed on the whole proceeding. That a member of the Society of Jesuits did not investigate the behaviour of government towards the Protestant proprietors, or that he commended every part of the transaction, would not be matter of astonishment: but we are not able to reconcile ourselves to the same conduct, in a person who holds an important public situation in British America. This is not the part of a careful and judicious compiler, but that of a servile copyist.—A proper attention, also, would have enabled Mr. Heriot, without lessening the value, to have considerably reduced the limits of his work, since he has

has entered more into detail than was necessary: but he found it much easier to transcribe than to investigate, digest, and arrange.

Making allowances for these defects, the present work must be allowed some value; and if it will not amuse the desultory, it will instruct the patient reader. It deserves to be perused with attention by those who are or may be concerned in expeditions, or colonies; and who will find in it useful practical lessons,—examples to follow, as well as errors to avoid.

Italy not having benefited itself by the discoveries made in the fifteenth century, we are in danger of overlooking the share in them which is due to the natives of that country: but, says Mr. H.

'It is much to the credit of the Italians, that the three great states who share the continent of the New World, owe to their countrymen the first discoveries which were made in that quarter.

'To Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, Spain is indebted for her rich possessions in the western hemisphere.—Jean Gabato and his sons, citizens of Venice, opened to the English a knowledge of the territories which they afterwards occupied; and Verazani, a native of Florence, communicated to the French the first satisfactory information of the tracts of country which were destined to be settled and possessed by that people.

'Another celebrated navigator may be added to these, Americus Vespuccio, a Florentine, who rendered to the Castilians and Portuguese eminent services in the New World; and who, although not the first discoverer of that continent, had the singular and enviable pre-eminence of communicating to it his name.'

The state of Canada is said to have derived its present name from the following incident: the Spaniards having landed, and finding no mines, pronounced frequently these two words, "*Aca Nada,*" "here is nothing;" which, being repeated by some of the savages to the French, made them imagine that *Canada* was the name by which it was called among the natives.

We insert the following passage on account of the description which it contains of a district which is subject to Great Britain. We are told that Cartier was the first who explored it with a view to a permanent settlement; and it was during his second voyage, which took place in 1535, that he was so employed:

'The vessels again entered the gulph on the 10th of August, when Cartier gave to a bay, which is situated on the north coast and opposite the island of Anticosti, the name of Saint Laurent, in honour of a Saint in the Romish calendar, whose fast is observed on that day; a name, which was afterwards extended to the Gulph, and to that immense river which there disembogues its waters, formerly known by

by the appellation of the river of Canada; which, for vastness of sources, length of navigable course, and picturesque grandeur, and beautiful scenery exhibited by its banks, stands unrivalled by any body of fresh waters on the habitable globe. To Anticosti he gave the title of Assumption, but this has now yielded to its former name.'

All these attempts proved abortive; and a permanent settlement did not take place till 1603, when an expedition sailed for the purpose in consequence of the representations of the Sieur Pontgrave, an expert navigator, and one of the principal merchants of St. Maloes. When about to depart, the voyagers had the good fortune to engage in the conduct of the scheme, Samuel de Champlain, commander of a vessel which had just arrived from the West Indies; and to the ability, fortitude, perseverance, and zeal of this person, the colony was afterward indebted for its establishment. Champlain explored all the neighbouring seas and regions; it was he who, in 1608, fixed on the promontory of Quebec as the most eligible spot for a settlement; it was owing to him that the design was not abandoned; and after the colony had fallen into the hands of the English, it was in consequence of his representations that its restoration by that power was made a point of importance, and was obtained at the peace of St. Germaine en Laye. Though possessed of singular merit, however, he did not always steer clear of faults. The French found the natives in their vicinity most amicably disposed towards them: which was occasioned by the hope that the former would give them effectual aid against other powerful tribes of their countrymen. In this expectation they were not disappointed, for Champlain assisted them with his forces in person: but it is here said that he did this without due regard to future consequences; and it is observed that to this conduct 'may be traced the calamities and dangers to which afterward the colony was frequently exposed, and which at some periods threatened its total destruction.' He also displayed a condescension towards the barbarians, which, though it answered some good ends, lessened in them that respect which his character and situation required.

The colony had scarcely been established twenty years, before it was taken by the English: but, as we have seen, it was soon afterward restored to its former masters; and Champlain, who had throughout been "the life and soul" of the settlement, was re-appointed its governor. Its state at this period is not without interest:

'Cape Breton, the fort of Quebec containing some houses and barracks, a few huts in the Island of Montreal, as many at Tadoussac, and at some other spots on the borders of the St. Laurence, for the convenience of fishing, and traffic with the natives, the com-

mencement of a settlement at Three Rivers, and the ruins of Port Royal, composed the whole extent of the settlements of New France, and all the fruits yet derived from the discoveries of Verazani, Cartier, Roberval, Champlain, from the great expences disbursed by the marquis de la Roche and by Monts, and from the industry of a considerable number of Frenchmen, who might have raised these establishments to a state of higher importance, had their several efforts been judiciously directed.'

Shortly after this time, the settlement lost its father and protector, the interesting Champlain.—We insert the tribute which is here paid to him:

'A man of uncommon penetration and disinterested views, he acquitted himself with honour and credit in dangerous and critical conjunctures. His unabted constancy in the pursuit of plans on which he had resolved, his unshaken firmness in great calamities, his ardent and amiable zeal for the welfare of his country, his tenderness and compassion for the misfortunes of others, his attention to promote the interest of his friends often in preference to his own, denoted him a character well qualified to discharge the duties of the situation which fortune had destined him to fill. His memoirs afford testimony of his professional knowledge, and evince him to have been a faithful historian, a traveller who regarded with attention whatever new objects presented themselves to his observation, a geometrician, and a skilful navigator. The chief object of his ambition seems to have been that of becoming the parent and founder of a colony: an ambition the most laudable which can occupy the human mind.'

In this infant colony, we find many offices of the highest utility and the greatest public benefit performed by the several religious orders; we mean those of pious instruction, education, attendance on the sick, and the conversion of the rude natives. Their exertions in the latter respect were indefatigable; and the contrast between the conduct of our own and that of the French settlers is very striking. It will be recollected, however, that the original historian, who is here so blindly followed, belonged to one of those orders.

M. Montmagny, the successor of Champlain as governor, was desirous of keeping good terms with the Iroquois, or the Five Nations; and this design led to an interview between him and their chiefs, of which, as it exemplifies the manner of making treaties among these savage tribes, we shall quote the account here given:

'The native allies of the French being equally solicitous for peace, he waited until, through their means, a favourable opportunity presented itself. On this occasion he went to Three Rivers, where having erected a tent in the fort, he placed himself in a chair, having on either side of him the officers and principal inhabitants of the colony.

colony. The deputies of the Iroquois were seated on a matt near his feet; they had chosen this place to mark their respect for Ononthio, the governor, whom they always distinguished by that appellation, and whom they generally addressed by the title of father.

'The Algonquins, the Montagnez, the Attikamegues, and some other savages who spoke the same language, were opposite, and the Hurons were mixed with the French. The middle space was unoccupied, that the necessary evolutions might be made without embarrassment and interruption.

'The Iroquois had provided themselves with seventeen belts, which were equal to the number of propositions they had to discuss; and to expose them to view in the order in which they were to be explained, they erected two picquets, with a cord extended from one to the other, on which they were suspended. The orator of the Cantons taking one in his hand, and presenting it to the Governor General, spoke thus: "Ononthio, be attentive to my words, all the Iroquois speak by my mouth; my heart entertains no evil sentiments, all my intentions are upright; we wish to forget our songs of war, and to resume the voice of chearfulness." He immediately began to sing, his colleagues marking the measure with a *hé*, which they drew from the bottom of their chest, and in dancing he moved quickly, and gesticulated in a manner perfectly grotesque. He cast his eyes towards the sun, he rubbed his arms as if to prepare himself for wrestling, and then assuming a composed air, continued his discourse. "This belt is to thank thee, my father, for having given his life to my brother; thou hast withdrawn him from the teeth of the Algonquin; but shouldst thou have permitted him to depart alone? If his canoe had upset, who could have assisted him? Had he been drowned, or had he by any other accident perished, thou couldst have had no tidings of peace, and thou wouldst have attributed to us a fault, which would have been alone imputable to thee." In finishing these words, he suspended a collar on the cord, he laid hold of another, and after having fixed it on the arm of Couture, a Frenchman, proceeded: 'My father, this collar restores to thee thy countryman; I was willing to say to him, my nephew, take a canoe, and return to thy country, but I never should have been happy until I had learned certain tiding of his arrival. My brother, whom thou sentest back to us, suffered much and encountered great dangers. He was obliged alone to carry his baggage, paddle his canoe the whole day, draw it up the rapids, and be always on his guard against surprise." The orator accompanied this discourse with expressive gestures; and represented the situation of a person sometimes conducting a canoe with a pole, an operation which in Canada is called *picquer de fond*, at others rowing with a paddle; sometimes he appeared out of breath, then, resuming the energy of his powers, he remained for a while in a state of tranquillity.

'He seemed in carrying his baggage, to wound his foot against a stone, and he proceeded limping, as if he felt the reality of pain.

'The other collars related to peace, of which the conclusion was he subject of this embassy; each had its particular import, and the

orator explained them in the same graphical manner, which, in the discussion of the former, he had displayed.

'One rendered the paths open and free, another calmed the spirit of war, which rendered the navigation of the rivers dangerous; there was one to announce that they should henceforth visit each other without fear or distrust; and with each different branch of the subject a belt was connected—the feasts which they should mutually give; the alliance between all the nations; the desire which they always entertained of restoring Fathers Jaques and Bressani, who were prisoners; the kindness they intended for them; their acknowledgment for the deliverance of three Iroquois captives; every one of these was expressed by a collar; and had the orator refrained from speaking, his action would, in a great degree, have developed the sentiments which he uttered. He spoke and acted for three hours without appearing to be heated, and he was the first to propose a species of festival, which terminated the assembly, and which consisted in feasting, singing, and dancing.

'Two days after, M. de Montmagny gave an answer to the propositions of the Iroquois; it not being custmary to reply on the same day. This assembly was equally numerous as the first, and the Governor-General made as many presents as he had received belts of wampum.—Couture was the speaker, and he delivered his discourse without gesticulation, without interruption, and with a gravity which corresponded with the character of the personage whose interpreter he was. When he had finished, Piskaret, an Algonquin chief, arose, and offered his present: "Behold," said he, "a stone which I place on the sepulchre of those who were killed in the war, that no one may attempt to remove their bones, and that every desire of avenging their death may be laid aside." This captain was one of the bravest men in Canada, and had distinguished himself by deeds of singular valour.

'Negabama, chief of the Montagnez, then presented a deer skin, saying, "that it was for the purpose of making shoes for the deputies of the Iroquois, lest in returning home they should wound their feet against the stones."

Until the wars of England and France began to be principally waged on the Western Continent, the history of this colony is little more than a narrative of internal jealousies between the several members of the government, and of the struggles between the colony and the native tribes; particularly those of the Iroquois. The present volume brings down the history only to the year 1725.

The detail of discoveries on the Missisippi, the adventures of de la Sale, the description of the manners and customs of the Natchez, the incidents which befel St. Denys, and the progress of the colony of Louisiana, form the most interesting parts of the work: but we do not think, with the author, that they bear any close relation to the subject which he had before been treating. On British readers, accounts of

Louisiana

Louisiana have no longer any particular claims, while all that relates to Canada intimately concerns them: we should therefore have been better pleased, if the space which embraces the last third of the volume had been devoted to the remaining part of the history of Canada: but it would seem that the track lost its charms, because there was no longer a faithful Charlevoix to direct the footsteps of the writer. Symmetry and proportion ought to be regarded in literary composition as much as in any other art; their observance would favour due conciseness; and surely the expence to buyers of books, the risk to authors, and the rapid flow of time, should induce the *artizans of literature* to labour to be brief.

Jo.

ART. VI. *Literary Hours;* or Sketches, critical, narrative, and poetical. By Nathan Drake, M.D. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 560. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

A COMMENCEMENT of the miscellaneous lucubrations of this ingenious writer was announced in the 29th volume of our New Series, p. 282. They were afterward amplified into two volumes; and, such has been the favourable reception which they have experienced from the public, that we have now to report a third, which contains a variety of additional papers.

No. 41. '*Of the limits of imitation, as applied to poetical expression.*' This title is somewhat ambiguous: but the author's obvious intention is to determine how far one poet may be allowed to adopt the phraseology of another. In many cases, we can scarcely hesitate to pronounce between legitimate imitation and direct plagiarism: but, in many more, we can draw no precise line of demarcation; and much must be left to the writer's discretion and the reader's candour. Instead of throwing any additional light on this critical question, the present essayist seems anxious to avow his acquiescence in the sentiments of those who have pronounced his Ode to Laura a too close and palpable imitation of the celebrated passage in the Paradise Lost, "Sweet is the breath of morn," &c. The rejected Ode is, nevertheless, intitled to considerable praise; though we could have dispensed with its republication, and with the substitution of another, 'to Pity,' in its room. From this last, however, we may take a few stanzas, as specimens of Dr. Drake's poetical talents:

'The tender tear shall Petrarch shed,
And, mourning o'er Le Fevre's bed,
The sigh of love repress;
And sad Rousseau, to passion dear,
And plaintive Otway, pausing near,
Thy gentle shade caress.

'From fair Fidele's grassy grave,
Shall hapless Collins haunt thy cave,
And breathe his magic song?
For whom, on Arun's sedgy side,
Still loud the notes of sorrow glide
At eve the woods along.

'Ah maiden lov'd! from earliest youth
To thee I've vow'd unblemish'd truth,
Each trembling pulse is thine;
To thee first lisp'd my artless muse,
And cull'd for thee of choicest hues
The flowers that deck thy shrine.

'Ah me! to thoughtless mirth assign'd,
If e'er I fail thy wounds to bind,
And leave the wretch to weep,
May I, in sorrow, beg my bread,
And dead to joy, to pity dead,
In dull oblivion sleep.'

The first two of these stanzas afford a happy imitation of the plaintive and pathetic manner of Collins, as exemplified in his ode on the death of Thomson.

Nos. 42—44. The account of Herrick and his writings, though it contains some particulars which are recommended by their interest and novelty, is rather tediously protracted: but, in justice to Dr. Drake, we have to remark that on this, as on other occasions, he is laudably solicitous to draw genuine merit from oblivion. Of Herrick's poetical powers, we may form an estimate from his verses

'To Blossoms.

'Fair pledges of a fruitful tree,
Why do ye fall so fast?
Your date is not so past;
But you may stay yet here a while,
To blush and gently smile;
And go at last.

'What, were ye born to be
An hour or half's delight;
And so to bid good night?
'Twas pity Nature brought *ye* forth
Merely to shew your worth,
And lose you quite.

'But you are lovely Leaves, where we
May read how soon things have
Their end, though ne'er so brave:
And after they have shown their pride,
Like you a while, they glide
Into the Grave.'

45—47. These

45—47. These three numbers are employed with the tale of 'Sir Egbert,' a sort of Gothic romance; in which, though the diction aspires at elegance, the narrative is diffuse and heavy. The author, in his fictions, pays too little respect to probability, and too much to that gloomy and terrific painting of castles and apparitions with which Mrs. Radcliffe and some German writers have lately visited the world.

48. Of the three short poems contained in this number, that which is addressed to Fancy is not devoid of merit: but the subject is too trite to awaken expectation.—Verses 'on Content' are given from the pen of the Rev. Francis Drake, B.D. which, though composed with due regard to metrical harmony, have not sufficient charms to reconcile us to a life of monastic seclusion; and Mr. Drake's retirement, of which he seems to be so much enamoured, scarcely deserves a more liberal epithet.—The verses 'to Zephyr,' by a lady, are rather pretty than impressive.

In Nos. 49—51. the essayist has bestowed considerable pains in adding to the number of striking passages adduced by Mr. Dunster, from Sylvester's translation of Du Bartas' *Days and Weeks*. Most of the new quotations are worthy of transcription: but the learned gleaner surely indulges in the language of exaggeration, when he affirms that the praise of a country life in Sylvester's version 'may be put into competition with almost any eulogium on the country, written since the æra of the Mantuan Bard;' and when he hazards the assertion that 'English rural or pastoral poetry has not either in point of beauty, sentiment, or engaging simplicity, a nobler passage to produce.' Let the impartial reader peruse the whole; and we think that he will be somewhat startled at such encomiastic approbation.—Again,

> 'Dear Mother England! bend thine aged knee,
> And to the heav'ns lift up thy hands with me;
> Off with thy pomp, hence with thy pleasures past,
> Thy mirth be mourning, and thy feast a fast.'

'The texture of these lines,' says Dr. D. 'is perfectly modern, their energy and melody are great, and they are entirely free from affectation, quaintness, or puerility.'—We mean not to question the music nor the sweetness of such lines: but can the last, which presents us with a studied antithesis, and a play on words, be prononced *entirely free from affectation, quaintness, or puerility?*

In No. 52. we meet with some pleasing remarks on the old metrical ballad, with an imitation of that peculiar style of poetry. This little piece, which is intitled 'Arthur and Edith,'

would have better accorded with its most admired prototypes, had the narrative been more condensed and abrupt. The introductory stanzas are spirited and affecting:

'Oh Richard! oh my lovely boy!
'Tis now twelve years and more,
Since thy dear father left these arms,
His wife and native shore.

'To Salem's field the warrior flew,
War's wasting rage to deal,
And many a vaunting paynim fled
The lightning of his steel.

'But now in some lone turret's height
He sighs the live-long day,
Or haply, clad in pilgrim garb,
Pursues his weary way.

'And he who in the clash of arms,
And in the battle's roar,
And in the tourney's gallant strife,
The meed of valour bore,

'May now, upon the blasted heath,
Of thirst and hunger die,
And not one helping friend be near;
No, not a comfort nigh.

'E'en now, perchance, on Edith's name,
The dying warrior calls,
And, fainting, breathes the tender sigh,
And blessing Edith, falls.'

The following is also poetical;

'See'st thou, my son, yon evening star,
Thro' those moss'd branches gleam,
Yon evening star to thee is bright,
And dear her modest beam.'

In some other parts of this effusion, we remark a feebleness, and the absence of that simplicity of expression which seems to be inseparably connected with the true pathetic.

53—58. Six numbers are here devoted to a classical view of the Scandinavian mythology;—a subject which has no pretensions to novelty, but the principal outlines of which Dr. Drake has sketched in a very pleasing and attractive manner: intermingling his observations with various suitable extracts from Cottle, Sayers, Sterling, Penrose, Gray, &c. We cannot, however, agree with him in thinking that the Gothic system of superstition can afford much interesting machinery or ornament to our national poetry; because it can never be

so familiar to the modern scholar as the mythology of Greece and Rome, of which the language has been consecrated by the lapse of ages. Of the Scandinavian history, our notions are necessarily obscure and vague; and though occasional allusions to the dark and sombre fables of the north may enhance the gloom of a fragment or an ode, they can never, with propriety and effect, supply the exigences of an epic poem.—We must not dismiss the present elegant exposition of the Gothic creed, however, without particularizing the author's ingenious observations on the respect which was paid to the female sex, by those tribes whom the Romans stigmatized with the epithet *barbarian*; which we recommend to the reader's notice.

No. 59. Here the author has introduced, 'under the title of *The Spectre*, a specimen of that species which endeavours to interest, through the medium of Gothic superstition.' This legendary ballad may remind the reader of Leonora, and Margaret's Ghost: but it is too diffuse, and the story is too *finely* told.

60. The concluding article relates to the life and writings of Michael Bruce. Lord Craig and Dr. Anderson have already collected the few particulars that are known concerning this unfortunate child of genius: but Dr. Drake's tribute to his memory is not the less affecting; while his critical remarks on the poem of Loch Leven are creditable to his judgment and his taste.

The present volume, on the whole, will not be found inferior to either of the other two: but it may be proper to remind our readers, that the author delights chiefly in the walk of grave and solemn criticism; and that he rarely unbends in the more smiling paths of wit or humour. Though his writings do not often manifest great depth of erudition, nor much philosophical acuteness, they bespeak an elegant and accomplished mind; and we trust that they will obtain a place in the library of the polite and classical scholar.

Dr. Drake has lately published another work, intitled *Essays illustrative of the Tatler, Spectator*, &c. which we shall shortly notice.

Muir.

ART.

ART. VII. *The History of the Revenue of the British Empire.* Containing an Account of the Public Income and Expenditure from the remotest Periods recorded in History, to Michaelmas 1802, with an Account of the Revenue of Scotland and Ireland, and an Analysis of the Sources of Public Revenue in general. By Sir John Sinclair, Bart., M.P. Vol. III. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

WITH his usual diligence, Sir John Sinclair pursues his career as the historian of our finances; and to the importance of his services in this department, as well as to his manner of performing them, we have already borne frequent testimony *. In the first chapter of the present volume, he gives an account of our national debt; distinctly stating the items of which the principal consists, the amount of the interest which it absorbs, and the sums expended on its management.

The circumstance of the Bank being the oldest of the creditors of the state induces Sir John briefly to sketch its history, which may interest our readers:

'Soon after the Restoration, it was proposed to erect *an office of credit* for the reception of goods and merchandise; for the appraised value of which, notes were to be issued, which it was imagined the merchant would find less difficulty in negotiating, than in borrowing upon the goods themselves: and such a plan might be attended with considerable advantages to commerce, if commodities were now to be warehoused in public repositories, a proper receipt given by an officer appointed for that purpose, and the property of goods to be transferred by indorsements upon such receipts. The high duties to which all commodities are now subject, render every plan for the ease and convenience of trade more necessary than ever.

'It was in the year 1678 that Dr. Lewis, an eminent clergyman, published his *Model of a Bank*, with some observations on the great advantages that would accrue from it, to the crown and to the people. But who could venture, in the reign of a rash, desperate, and needy monarch like Charles II. to trust their property in any place which he might be tempted to invade, and to which he could possibly find access?

'The same circumstance prevented the establishment of a bank *anno* 1683. By letters patent from the crown, a company had been erected, called the Royal Fishery of England, instituted for the purpose of carrying on that branch of commerce with advantage to this country, and, indeed, with the hopes of depriving the Dutch of the profits they acquired by fishing upon our coasts. Upon this company, it appears, that a *general bank of credit* was engrafted: but though the plan was supported by persons of considerable character

* See M. R. Vols. lxxiv. p. 94. lxxxi. p. 23. and iii. N.S. p. 1.

and

and property, neither the state of the government, nor the temper of the times, were calculated for such an institution; and consequently it was soon dropped.

'The present Bank of England was established *anno* 1694. It was suggested by William Paterson, a Scotchman of great natural abilities, (who was afterwards one of the original Directors); and carried through by the influence of Michael Godfrey, a gentleman of considerable influence in the city, who was appointed the first Deputy Governor, to whom he had communicated the plan.

'Nothing can more clearly prove the low state of our public credit, and the great scarcity of specie at that time, than the terms which parliament found itself under the necessity to grant. For the sake of receiving £1,200,000, government agreed to pay not only interest, at the rate of 8 *per cent* and 4000*l.* for the expence of management; but the subscribers were also erected into a corporate body for the purpose of carrying on the lucrative trade of banking. It was expected, however, that the circulation of their notes, and the establishment of paper credit, would greatly facilitate the raising of supplies, and prove a general ease and accommodation to the public in all pecuniary transactions.'

In order to dispose the public to enter into the scheme,

'It was stated, that, by such means, the rich might have their personal property secured from every risk, and might enjoy, at the same time, great pecuniary advantages. The landed gentlemen, who formerly could not borrow four thousand pounds upon an estate of one thousand pounds a year, without additional personal security, might now, (it was said,) borrow four thousand pounds, upon three hundred pounds *per annum*. The merchant who brought a cargo to England worth three thousand pounds, might have money to that amount at the Bank, without the smallest difficulty, and might thus carry on his traffic to additional advantage: and, to sum up all in a few words, "it would render the sovereign great, the gentry rich, the farmer flourishing: our commerce would increase, our ships multiply, our seamen would never want employment; new manufacturers would be set up, and the old greatly encouraged."

'The public, by such arguments as these, being impressed with a favourable idea of the measure, on the 16th of June 1694, a commission was issued under the great seal, for taking subscriptions. On the 21st of June, the commissioners attended for the first time, at Mercers Chapel. Nearly £300,000 were subscribed the first day; £200,000 the second, and as much on the third: and before the second of July, the whole sum was made up. The success was beyond expectation; for it had been thought necessary to make provisions in the bill, on the supposition that only £600,000 might be subscribed.

'Thus the Bank was established; but it was entitled to no exclusive privilege of banking. It was merely erected into a corporation, which it was in the power of the public, upon one year's notice after the 1st of August 1705, to annihilate, by repaying the money that was borrowed.'

Sir John thus concludes his account of this national institution:

'From this concise view of the various agreements with the Bank of England, it does not appear that they were ever attended with any material benefit to the public. The only sum which government ever received, without becoming bound to pay, either the interest usual at the time, after a short suspension, or to repay the principal, was the trifling sum of £110,000 obtained by Mr. Grenville. The corporation has undoubtedly been of service in circulating exchequer bills; in facilitating, by their notes, pecuniary transactions; and in maintaining, to a considerable degree, credit both public and private: But it is to be hoped, when a bargain comes again to be concluded, instead of any advance of money, or any inadequate compensation of that nature, that *one half of the clear annual profits of the company* will be insisted upon. A power also should be reserved in the state, at any time it thought proper, to erect another bank, which, though it would not be much relished by those who are infected with a spirit of monopoly, yet the consequences of such a rivalship would be of infinite benefit to trade, and productive of many solid advantages to the nation.'

It is evident that this great corporation is no favourite with the present author; and it appears to be his wish that, on the next occasion, the contractors on the part of the public should, by the bargain then to be made, recover all that has heen lost by the remissness of their predecessors. We own that the fluctuating nature of the body of proprietors seems to us to furnish a decisive objection to the measure. Whether it would be expedient to erect another bank, as is here proposed, is a question to the decision of which we do not feel that we are equal: but we have the good fortune of concurring with the honourable Baronet in the opinion that the clause introduced into the 6th of Anne, limiting private banking firms to six partners, was solely calculated to serve a monopoly, at the expence of the public. We also disapprove, not less than Sir John, the indirect repeal procured by the late Chancellor of the Exchequer, of the provision of the fifth of W. and M., by which the Bank was prohibited to make advances to government without the authority of Parliament.

It having been found that, in every country in which paper not convertible into specie has been circulated, bankruptcy has followed, no one can contemplate our own situation without apprehension. At the same time, if forgery can be prevented, and the issues of paper can be confined within due limits, there can be no doubt that the saving of the loss arising from the wear of the precious metals furnishes a strong inducement in favour of a circulating medium, constituted as is the present.

present. This is a great and difficult subject; referring to which the author remarks:

'The increase in the circulation of Bank notes, from £8,640,250 on the 26th Feburary 1797, to £17,931,930 on the 25th November 1803, is a circumstance which would hardly have been credited in former times, and the effects of which certainly cannot be of an indifferent or trifling nature, but must ultimately prove either materially useful or pernicious to the country. It is singular also, that though the Bank refused to issue small notes when recommended to them in 1796; yet that a sum equal to one half of their total circulation in 1797, was issued by them, *in such notes*, in 1803.

'With regard to this increasing issue, and the policy of continuing the suspension of payments in cash, I have already delivered in this work, (see vol. ii. p. 307) my sentiments respecting them. The more I reflect upon the subject, the more I am satisfied that no country can prosper without having an abundant circulation, or in other words, money easily attainable, and at a moderate rate of interest. Where that can be effected by paper convertible into coin, it is certainly the most desirable system to rely on; but if that cannot be brought about, owing to improvident wars, public extravagance, or private luxury and profusion, it is better to have an abundant circulation *of paper only*, than to permit any deficiency in so essential an article for the existence of a prosperous nation, as the medium of barter. I am also convinced, that a country is more likely ultimately to procure a sufficiency of the precious metals, through the industry excited by means of abundant paper circulation, than if that industry were cramped by the impossibility of obtaining funds or credit to support it.'

Sir J. S. states that, in 1804, the capital of the national debt, including twenty-five millions, the interest of which is payable by the Irish government, was £637,660,465, bearing an interest of £22,877,954, and the management of it cost the nation £316,025.

The plan for the reduction of our immense burthens, proposed by the author, is too complicated to admit of our giving any report of it. That which has been adopted appears to us to be, in its leading outlines, the most practicable of any with which we are acquainted. The sums paid off, from 1st Aug. 1786 to 1st Feb. 1804, we are informed, amounted to £99,306,103; and the sum applicable in the latter year to the reduction of the debt was £6,362,114. Sir John then observes

'That such a sum as six millions regularly applied to the reduction of the national debt, enormous as it may appear in its present state, would soon effect a very considerable diminution of it; but unfortunately, before a sinking fund has time to operate to any great extent, new debts are contracted; and one year of a general war, dissipates the savings of many years of peace. At the same time, if

we

we were fortunate enough to see the tranquillity of Europe established on a solid foundation, there can be no doubt, that such progress would be made in discharging our national incumbrance, as never has been formerly exhibited by any other nation.'

In the author's statement of the revenue of his native country, a strong national bias and occasional symptoms of ill humour are betrayed: but his patriotism and liberal views, as he proceeds, appear paramount to every narrow and unworthy feeling. He urges very powerful considerations in favour of the erection of a stamp-office in Edinburgh; and he calculates that Scotland pours upwards of two millions sterling into the British treasury. When treating on this subject, he very sensibly remarks that

'If Scotland, under all the disadvantages of having become in a manner an inferior and subordinate kingdom, is able to preserve the same proportion between the income of the two countries which existed at the Union, there is no just reason for complaint. That cannot be denied. England and Scotland, at the memorable æra above alluded to, were taxed to the amount of £5,851,803, of which it was supposed that Scotland would produce about £160,000 *per annum*, or little more than a thirty-sixth part of the whole; whereas at present, the gross produce of the income of the two kingdoms may be stated at £44,800,000, of which £2,800,000, or about one-sixteenth, instead of one thirty-sixth part, is furnished by North Britain. The difference in the proportion between the two periods, does no small degree of credit to the financial resources of Scotland. Besides, the income of Scotland ought not to be compared with that of England in general, including the metropolis: for London is the capital of Scotland as well as of England, and if the taxes which it yields were deducted, the difference in regard to taxation between Scotland and the country in England, considering the difference of extent and of fertility between the two kingdoms, would not be much dwelt on.'

If the benefits which England has derived from the union are abundantly manifest, Sir John Sinclair clearly shews that it has been not less beneficial to his countrymen. Indeed, one fact mentioned by him, without any immediate view to the point in question, is completely decisive with regard to it. At the union, the post-office was farmed at the inconsiderable sum of £1,194.—The spirit in which Sir John concludes his observations on this subject cannot be too much applauded:

'But the Union at the same time is an event, the existence of which Scotland has no reason to regret. Those who will take the trouble of comparing the situation of that country, whilst it was subject to independent monarchs, or even since the two crowns were united, (the reign of William III. itself not excepted), with its present state, must soon be convinced of the happy consequences which have resulted from it. We cannot indeed attribute every improvement which has recently taken place, to the Union. For without it, there

there must have been some, and perhaps considerable advancement: it is impossible, however, to deny, that the progress of Scotland, by that event, has been not a little accelerated.

'The Scots have also to consider, that by the Union, they have connected themselves with a nation, who will make as distinguished a figure in the page of history, as any people that ever existed: a nation that can boast, not only of warriors and of statesmen, of poets, of philosophers, and of artists, equal, and in many instances superior, to those of other countries; but who have also brought the various arts connected with the cultivation of the soil; the improvements necessary in carrying on every species of manufacturing industry; the theory and the practice of commerce, that wonderful assemblage that constitutes naval strength; and above all, the principles of good government, and the forms of a free constitution, to a height of perfection, which the world never before witnessed.

'May both nations, or, to speak more properly, the natives of South and North Britain, sensible of the mutual advantages which they now enjoy, forget every remnant of ancient jealousy and rancour: and those whom the hand of Providence hath joined, may no man impiously put asunder!'

The author is equally elaborate in the details which he gives of the revenue of Ireland; and he bestows appropriate praise on the mode of examining the public accounts that was pursued in the late Irish Parliament. Had a similar course been followed in this country, it is probable that our burthens would have been somewhat less heavy: but at all events the regulation to which we refer must be allowed to have been highly salutary. It may be feared that it is within the order of nature that the seeds of decay shall sooner or later pervade every human institution; and there is ground for suspecting that they have long appeared in the shape of *profusion*, in the financial part of our system.

'It has often been remarked, that the laws and regulations established in small states, are in general wiser, and better calculated to obtain the ends in view than those of an extensive empire; and, as one proof among many others which might be adduced to support the justness of that observation, it may be remarked, that the system adopted in Ireland, prior to the union, for passing the public accounts, seems to be infinitely preferable to the one which took place in the British parliament. In the latter case, a supply was voted, without any previous inquiry regarding the necessity thereof, and a number of accounts were called for, which were detailed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, in what was called *his budget*: whereas, in Ireland, the following more regular system was pursued.

'In the first place, certain accounts properly arranged, of the expences of government, and the produce of every branch of the revenue, were annually laid before the house of commons. As soon as these were produced, a committee was appointed to inspect them, and to report their opinion thereon, with power to appoint sub-committees,

mittees, that the accounts, if necessary, might be more minutely examined. When the report of the committee, accompanied with the accounts therein referred to, was presented, it was ordered to lie upon the table for the perusal of the members; soon after it was referred to the committee of supply; and then the house resolved, after evidence of the necessity thereof, "*that a supply be granted to His Majesty.*"

'This plan is certainly preferable to the one adopted in the British parliament, which has been already explained. Its superiority appeared so evident to the Irish house of commons, that it became a standing order of the house, "*that no money bill be read until the report from the committee of accounts be first made.*" This previous examination was a great check upon improvident expences, and with such authentic documents to refer to, the members could reason with more advantage on the financial circumstances of the nation, than could be done from loose and undigested documents, or the harangue of any minister, however distinctly stated.'

In 1804 the national debt of Ireland amounted to - -	£44,749,325
The interest, to - -	2,217,451
The sinking fund, to - -	100,000
The revenue in the preceding year netted	3,906,122

The reflections occurring in these pages on the Irish union are those of a liberal and comprehensive mind; and the author gives a neat summary of its advantages as it respects the sister island.

Though, as a financial *historian*, we have found reason to commend the present author, we own that as a financial *projector* he does not appear to us with similar advantage. The weight of our actual burthens renders all speculations of this sort far from pleasing; and reasoning on the extent of our resources is vain, when our feeling tells us that the pressure is already extreme. We deem it no crime to remind ministers that our resources have a limit; nor do we hold it to be mischievous to remonstrate against too rapid approaches towards that point. If the patriots of former times were mistaken in regard to this boundary, are we to infer that unchecked extravagance will never reach it? It was the unparalleled increase of our commerce that occasioned their predictions to fail; and do appearances warrant our counting on a continued progression in this line? Would it not be frantic, would it not be deliberately to entail bankruptcy on our posterity, to impose burthens on the foundation of such a notion?—The voice of corruption is sufficiently busy and clamorous, whenever one of its minions is assailed; and shall not the heavily burthened subject of this free state be allowed to throw out cautions against the mismanagement of the public fortune? There is, we own,

own, more of complaisance in such sort of restrictive patriotism than is suitable to our palate. If, however, it be an offence to intimate that we have gone deeply into our resources, what must it be to supply, as the author does, a demonstration of the fact?—and what can have that effect in a greater degree than the pitiful taxes which he proposes; taxes which, for the most part, are contrary to the free spirit of the constitution, to sound policy, and to the public welfare! What will be the inference of an intelligent observer, when an eminent financial writer can point to no better resources than imposts on foreign travel and foreign residence, on taylors and milliners, on the wearing of trinkets and the use of furniture; when he advises the appropriation, by the treasury, of all the hides in the kingdom; when he advises ministers to turn underwriters, guardians of the poor, and trustees of the roads, in order to secure the surplus arising from those funds? What does this counsel import, and what conclusions does it warrant in regard to our financial situation? The most free and intemperate declamation on the exhausted state of our resources alarms much less than the shifts to which the minister must soon apply, according to the mode of raising revenue which is traced in the pages before us. We would ask the honourable Baronet whether it be not as absurd to flatter a spendthrift state, as a spendthrift individual? The nation, like the private person whose fortune has been considerably affected, must suffer in proportion; it can only escape fatal consequences by all possible retrenchments, by extreme frugality, and by a thrifty management of its means; and to whisper the reverse of this conduct in the public ear is more like the conduct of a designing flatterer, than that of an approved and sincere friend.—We differ thus widely from the maxims of political prudence laid down by the respectable Baronet, but we by no means impeach his intentions, and are very far from ascribing to him any unworthy motive. We acknowlege the merit of his labours, and the claims which they establish to the regards of the public: but we cannot commend him as an original financier, and beg leave to remind him of the sound old adage,

"*Quam quisque norit artem, in hac se exerceat.*"

In the chapter on the national resources, in which the matters occur that have thus excited our animadversions, hints are also suggested regarding economy and retrenchment which deserve the most opposite character, and are indeed admirable.

The analysis of the sources of revenue in general, founded on historical facts, here introduced in the form of an appendix

to the volume, is extremely curious; and it does great credit to the industry and research of the author. These materials, if somewhat more enlarged, would form a very interesting work.

Jo.

ART. VIII. *A concise History of the present State of the Commerce of Great Britain.* Translated from the German of Charles Reinhard, LL.D. of the University of Gottingen, and Knight of the Order of St. Joachim. With Notes, and considerable Additions relating to the principal Manufactures, by J. Savage *. 8vo. pp. 74. 2s. 6d. Boards. Symonds. 1805.

WE had occasion some time ago to acknowlege the obligations which a foreigner, in the person of M. Gentz †, had conferred on this country on the subject of Politics; and we have now the satisfaction of announcing a similar though not an equally extensive service rendered to us by another respectable stranger, Dr. Reinhard. The positions which he labours in these pages are, the permanency and solidity of our financial resources, and the consequent impossibility of reducing the kingdom by length of contest; as well as the efficiency of our armed force to resist all attempts to subdue it by violent methods. He exposes the misrepresentations of our enemies with as much temper as ability, and with as much good faith as argumentative strength. Unlike too many vindicators among ourselves, he does not descend into calumnies and slander, which have little or no foundation in truth, and which principally injure and degrade those who make use of them.

In reference to the tenets of our adversaries, the author observes:

'However lightly these may weigh with the well-informed, they are calculated to have a contrary effect on the great body of the enemies of England; it therefore becomes necessary to prove their fallacy, by a deliberate and candid discussion of the importance and stability of the Commerce of Great-Britain, that great sinew of her political existence, that mine of gold, which ever yields the richest treasures, and is worked by the numberless engines of British industry, and the prodigious mercantile genius of the whole nation. Were it possible to undermine this fundamental pillar of the British state; or even to corrode it, and impair its energy and extent, then the enemies of that nation might fairly boast of having pared the claws of the British lion; then modern Carthage would really totter, while her contemporaries, struck with amazement, would survey the gigantic task atchieved, and the commercial world would be shaken to its foundation.'

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* The *translator's* preface is signed J.W.H.

† See Rev. Vol. xli. N.S. p. 21.

Dr. R. maintains that all the efforts of France, to impede and destroy our commerce, have completely failed, and that they cannot in any serious degree succeed in future. He remarks that we reap the vast profits of the Greenland, whale, and seal fisheries, and of the herring fishery on our own coasts, without a competitor; for that Hamburgh, Altona, Gluckstadt, Bremen, all Holland, and the inhabitants of the French coast bordering on the German ocean, are wholly excluded from this lucrative traffic.

From the vicinity of the frozen sea, all along the coast of Norway, in the Baltic sea and its harbours, our commerce meets with no obstacles, and the mercantile intercourse is carried on without interruption. Excluded from the Elbe and the Weser, it has taken a direct and unmolested course by way of Husum, and on the Eider, through Tonningen; and it suffers not the least detriment or loss on account of this circuitous conveyance. By the way of Tonningen, Germany and all the countries of middle Europe receive large quantities of British exports.

Russia is supplied from England with West India produce, with British manufactures, and with various East India goods. The exports from Russia to England consist very much of raw materials.

The English have an unrestricted communication with their markets along the coast of East Friesland, Dollart, Embden, and the Ems. On the whole Dutch coast from the Dollart beyond Flushing, the British carry on indirect commercial dealings, and they 'have every facility of getting their cargoes unshipped from the inhabitants themselves.' The French lately seized goods on the frontiers of Holland to the value of £80,000, but they were afterward all restored; and the Dutch, we are told, have found it impossible to prevent a direct communication with England by way of Rotterdam.—'Though the British are excluded in the Mediterranean, along the whole line of coast from the French ports as far down as Naples and the Streights of Sicily, and from the Italian ports on the Adriatic, Venice and Trieste excepted, those of Istria, Dalmatia, and Albania still remain open to them.'

Dr. R. states that we have the greatest share in the lucrative trade of the Levant: but this account does not agree with that which has been given by Mr. Jackson, who appears to be completely informed on the subject. See our last Review, p. 65.

The surface of our Indian territories, the fertility of which is here discussed, it said to exceed three times that of the United Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland; and our im-

ports from Hindostan are stated to yield a profit of £2,400,000. Europe is said to purchase tea from the Company, to the quantity of 24 millions of pounds.

From our possessions in North America, which include Canada with its extensive bays, the important river of St. Lawrence, Newfoundland, and the whole coast as far up as Labradore, we derive our stores of valuable furs, a quantity of ship timber, copper, wax, &c.; and we must add to these advantages the profitable fisheries near Newfoundland, and in other bays in these parts.—The extensive fishery and coal trade from Newcastle form the real nursery of English seamen.

From the confines of Canada, as far as Louisiana, the territory of the United States of America extends. The British commerce is now most closely connected with that of the Americans; and large capitals belonging to the English are employed in American enterprizes. English houses of the first respectability form partnerships with American houses, and so do the Americans in England. The very nation once dependent on the mother-country now acts with her, though independent, under one firm.

In drawing to a close his observations on this topic, the author introduces the following facts and reflections:

'There is scarcely a single commodity, a single article of luxury or convenience, that is not manufactured by the English, with the most consummate skill, and in the highest state of perfection.

'The soil of Britain does not indeed produce a quantity of corn sufficient for the exigencies of its inhabitants; and for this reason it becomes necessary, every year, to remit large sums of money for its purchase to the ports in the Baltic; but then nature has indemnified that country with her rich coal mines, the envy of foreigners, who by this means become, in a certain manner, tributary to England; for the English parliament has laid a considerable duty on the exportation of coals, which foreign nations are obliged to pay.

'A nation whose active commerce is so preponderating, compared with its passive trade, who is herself the ruler of the most numerous and fertile colonies in all parts of the world: a nation that sends the produce of her industry to every zone; that has so formidable a navy, and so wide spread a navigation; a nation, that by her activity and the genius of her citizens, manufactures its numberless articles of merchandise, infinitely finer, in much superior workmanship, in far more exquisite goodness, than all other nations, without exception; and that is able to sell them infinitely cheaper, owing to her admirable engines, her machines, and her native coal; a nation, whose credit and whose capital is so immense as that of England, surely such a nation must render all foreigners tributuary; and her very enemies must help to bear the immense burthen of her debt and the enormous accumulation of her taxes.'

Dr.

Dr. Reinhard expresses a very favourable opinion of our state of defence. The difficulties which the French must find in effecting a landing, in consequence of our naval superiority, are placed in a very strong light; and our physical means of resistance are also stated with ability and correctness. The picture of our resources is drawn in glowing and vivid colours; and the effect of the whole is calculated to inspire the British bosom with confidence. It is, however, to be observed that this tract was penned before the recent unparalleled change which has been effected in the situation of the continent. Yet, in spite of that distressing reverse, occasioned by a series of ill concerted measures, the dangers of which had been predicted, the view of our situation given by this well informed stranger suggests considerations that should check despondency; and if it be still in the power of human wisdom and exertion to maintain our independence, and a large portion of our consideration, we may hope that the strong and united government which we have just seen instituted will accomplish this momentous object. We trust that no minor considerations, nor any individual feelings, will interfere with the grand points which now solicit the whole attention and the most vigorous efforts of our Ministers. They have taken the helm at a moment of extreme peril; and the safety of the state-vessel and of the crew is in their hands. In the conduct which they may adopt, and in the consequences which may result, much allowance should unquestionably be granted to them, on recollecting the circumstances under which they have commenced their charge of the ship: but, since they *have* assumed the office of pilots, they are deeply responsible for the exercise of every particle of their combined skill, judgment, and strength. To use a vulgar but expressive phrase, their's must be "*a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull* ALTOGETHER."—*Verbum sat.*

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ART. IX. *Biographical Memoirs of Lord Viscount Nelson,* &c. &c. With Observations, critical and explanatory. By John Charnock, Esq., F. S. A., Author of the *Biographia Navalis,* &c. 8vo. pp. 500. 10s. 6d. Boards. Symonds. 1806.

ALTHOUGH the prowess of the British Navy has been eminently distinguished for some centuries, it has shone with rapidly increased lustre within our own times; and among the luminaries who have contributed to this brilliant reputation, the star of *Horatio Nelson* has displayed a dazzling effulgence. With eagerness, therefore, the public will undoubtedly

doubtedly receive the best tribute to his fame, a concentrated record of his exploits. Since his lamented fall, more than one biographer has announced his intention of engaging in this grateful duty; and Mr. Charnock has already presented to us the labours of his active pen. The representative of the hero's family, however, has given notice that a publication is preparing, in well qualified hands, and under his superintendence, which shall adequately blazon the deeds of the warrior, and fully satisfy the wishes of the reader. In the mean time, the work before us may be received as introductory to the more ample details, and as a temporary gratification of the public feelings.

Mr. Charnock, indeed, is becomingly sensible of the 'weight of the task' which he has undertaken, and modestly characterizes his performance as little more than a faithful collection and report of much authentic intelligence, which had been before widely scattered under our view. 'An enthusiastic attachment to the naval service' in course attracted his particular attention to the prominent actions of a Nelson; and a personal acquaintance with this regretted officer formed a still more powerful stimulus to the present attempt. The knowlege resulting from this individual intercourse, which took place at the house of the late Capt. Locker, Lieut. Governor of Greenwich Hospital, and the correspondence of the hero with this last mentioned gentleman, which is here given, impart perhaps its chief merit to the volume; and certainly constitute that which it possesses on the score of originality. The "great deeds" of *Nelson* proclaimed themselves in deafening thunder, and were chronicled as they occurred, for the inspection of an admiring world. It is therefore principally in the line of private information that the reader now wants to be gratified; it is with regard to the sentiments, the feelings, and the motives of the *man*, rather than the character of the *officer*, that we wish for additional knowiege.—Let us be allowed to recommend a *proper discretion*, but no *undue concealment*, on this head, to the authorized biographers of this extraordinary commander. Some parts of his public conduct *, while in the Mediterranean, subsequently to the battle of the Nile, may perhaps be open to historic scrutiny; and some features in his private connections may demand a delicate exhibition, though they should receive no unfaithful colouring, nor be "veiled in the obscurity" of unmerited shade. The actions of *Horatio Nelson* have been, are, and long will be, held up, on lofty eminence, as incitements to imitation;—*if*—for we speak with hesitation, and only from general ideas—*if* any part of them, public or private,

* With respect to the Neapolitans.

has

has been tarnished by that alloy to which all human excellence is liable, let it be equally exhibited as a warning. No great authorities should ever be quoted in justification of errors; nor should extraordinary merit ever be allowed to shrink from the investigation of partial failings.—Mr. Charnock, however, boasts of his security from the dangers of attempting this discrimination of character, in delineating a man in whose portrait he asserts no such features occur; and by him, therefore, no such rigid duty is fulfilled.

As the services of Lord Nelson were peculiarly splendid and important, so was his elevation unusually rapid and distinguished. Surrounded by the rays of glory, and glittering with the decorations of rank, he perished at the early age of 47: at an age in which, in ordinary times, officers in our service have scarcely been permitted to hoist the flag which its rules allot to seniority, or have had the opportunity of snatching the ensigns of eminence from Fortune, with eager but successful hands. With Fortune, he was certainly a favorite: but the more we contemplate him, the more we are convinced that he was endowed with uncommon talents. He united judgment to enterprize, perseverance to ardor, coolness to undaunted courage, and the most ample knowlege of his profession to the most enthusiastic passion for its honours. Of his presence of mind, various examples have been cited; to its effects in the battle of Copenhagen, much, indeed, was due; and more, we believe, than has been commonly assigned to it. Many anecdotes are also related which prove his great humanity and benevolence. Of his *piety*, which has been much celebrated, and which he rather peculiarly introduced in his official dispatches, we speak not in this place: it is in our minds a characteristic of too much sacredness to be ascribed without the fullest warranty, and without the undeviating testimony of the purest conduct.

For the principal particulars in this volume, historically considered, Mr. Charnock has been indebted to gazettes, and to a monthly publication intitled *the Naval Chronicle*, to which Lord Nelson himself had communicated a sketch of his own life. We shall abstract a summary of its leading events, and subjoin some quotations from his correspondence with Captain Locker, which appear to us to be interesting as illustrative of character.

Horatio Nelson was the third son of the Rev. Edmund Nelson, Rector of Burnham Thorpe, Norfolk, and Catharine Suckling, and was born 29th Sept. 1758. When 12 years old, he was entered on board of the Raisonable of 64 guns, commanded by his maternal uncle Capt. Maurice Suckling;

and on that ship being paid off, he went to the West Indies, in a trading vessel, but returned to his uncle on his appointment to the Triumph guardship. It is here worthy of remark that, at this time, his partiality for the navy had not manifested itself: on the contrary, observes Mr. Charnock,

'It is said, and from such authority as can scarcely be doubted, that he had imbibed the strongest prejudice against serving in the navy, and that it was not without much difficulty that his uncle, than whom no person could be better qualified for such a task, was able to remove it. Gentle precept, and the force of example, having completed this purpose, this young navigator gave the earliest proofs of that enthusiastic attachment to his profession which very rarely fails to create renown, and lead to the highest honours. It is reported, as an anecdote, that his uncle, who appears from this circumstance to have obtained very considerable knowledge of the workings of the human heart, as well as to have made himself completely master of his nephew's peculiar turn of mind, carried his point by judiciously appearing to place a confidence in him far beyond what his years and short time of service might be thought to justify, but which his conduct uniformly proved he fully merited.'

On Capt. Phipps's appointment to an expedition to the North Pole, in 1772, young Nelson exchanged his inactive situation for this hazardous service, and embarked as Coxswain to Capt. Lutwidge of the Carcase. His conduct, on this duty, gained him much credit and confidence. On the return of his ship to England, he sailed for the East Indies in the Seahorse, Capt. Farmer: but the climate of Asia disagreeing with his constitution, which even then manifested that delicacy which it ever betrayed, Commodore Hughes sent him home in the Dolphin frigate. Recovering in his native air, he was appointed acting lieutenant of the Worcester, 26th Dec. 1776; and during a winter's cruize in the Bay of Biscay, he so thoroughly acquired the good opinion of his commander Capt. Mark Robinson, that the latter is 'said to have declared to his friends, that notwithstanding Mr. Nelson's youth, he being then little more than eighteen years old, he felt himself quite as easy in the most boisterous night, when it was his turn to command the watch, as when it was that of the oldest officer in the ship.' He passed his examination 8th April 1777, with such credit that he was immediately commissioned as 2d lieutenant of the Lowestoffe frigate, Capt. W. Locker, destined to a three years' station at Jamaica. On arriving at that island, Capt. L. selected Lieut. Nelson for the command of a schooner, fitted as a tender to the Lowestoffe; in which 'he distinguished himself on a variety of occasions.' In 1779, Sir Peter Parker removed him as 3d lieutenant into his flag ship, the Bristol; in which he rose to be first in that rank; and whence he was

promoted

promoted to the command of the Badger sloop of war. On the 11th of June 1779 he was advanced to post rank, and to the Hinchinbroke of 20 guns. At the commencement of 1780, he went in the naval command of an expedition against the Spanish settlers on the river St. John in the Gulph of Mexico, and contributed most essentially to its success. He was next promoted to the Janus of 44 guns: but ill health obliged him to return to England, as a passenger in the Lion, Captain (now Admiral) Cornwallis. The waters of Bath having much recruited him, he was commissioned in Aug. 1781 to the Albemarle of 28 guns; cruized during the winter in the North Seas; and was sent in April 1782 with a convoy to Newfoundland. Having proceeded afterward to Quebec, and New York, he sailed from the latter place in November to the West Indies with Lord Hood, returned to England and was paid off in July following, and made a visit to France during the hours of peace.

In spring 1784, he went in the Boreas, of 28 guns, to the Leeward islands, as a cruizer on the peace establishment.

'This service (says Mr. C.) was by no means so easy, as the public situation of affairs appeared to promise. The Americans, after having erected themselves into free and independant states, were extravagant enough to expect, notwithstanding their disseverment from the mother-country, they should continue to enjoy the same privileges which they possessed when considered as colonies to it. The governors and inhabitants of the West India islands supported this absurd claim; and Captain Nelson having, in consequence of his adopting a firm opinion of its impropriety, declared that he would seize all American vessels, which he found trading contrary to the rules established for that purpose with foreigners, was treated with much asperity.

'In a short time afterwards he demonstrated that his declaration was not an empty threat, intended merely to intimidate, and never to be followed up by the act itself. Having accordingly seized several American vessels which he chanced to meet with, the outcry against him rose to so great an height throughout all the British islands and colonies in that quarter, that he was constrained, for a considerable time, to continue on board his ship, without going even on shore, fearing he might meet with some unpleasant conduct, which his spirit could neither brook, nor the station he held would permit him to endure. Much however as his behaviour might be reprobated by the parties interested, Captain Nelson had the satisfaction to find it approved, in the most unqualified manner, by his sovereign, and his native country. He continued on the same station, till the month of June, 1787, and was then ordered to England; the term usually allotted to ships employed on such service, during the time of peace, being expired. In the month of March preceding, he married Mrs. Frances Herbert Nesbit, widow of Dr. Nesbit, daughter to William Herbert, Esquire, senior judge, and niece to Mr. Herbert, president

of

of the same island; his royal highness Prince William Henry, who served on the same station as Captain of the Pegasus, gracing the nuptials with his presence, and acting as father to the truly amiable lady.'

The Boreas being now paid off, Capt. Nelson passed five years of retirement at his father's parsonage house, which that gentleman assigned to him for his residence.—On the rupture with France in 1793, he was appointed to the Agamemnon of 64 guns, and sailed to the Mediterranean in May. Here he was on the theatre of his future glory, and now commenced that series of splendid actions with which all the civilized world has been astonished.—On this station,

'Captain Nelson continued for three years: foremost in the hour of danger and difficulty, while at the same time his bravery was happily mingled with the most consummate prudence, and profoundest judgment, it become rather a matter of public wonder, if any official report of an encounter passed him over in silence. He was entrusted as a negotiator, employed as a naval partizan, as a superintendant of transports, and as a general officer on shore; in all which multifarious offices he acquitted himself with such credit, that it were a difficult matter to decide on what occasion his services shone most conspicuously; whether at Genoa, or in his long communications with General De Vins; on the coast of Italy, where he was so frequently employed in expeditions against the French flotillas, which sought their safety by running into creeks, whither they thought it impossible gallantry could pursue them; on the coast of Corsica, where the embarkation and landing of troops were so happily confided to him; or at the sieges of Bastia and Calvi, where he displayed the knowledge of an able engineer, joined to the experience of a consummate general It was on the latter occasion he had the misfortune to lose the sight of his right eye; a shot from one of the enemy's batteries having struck the ground near the spot where he stood, and driven up the small gravel with such violence, that a minute particle of it struck him on that tender part, and produced the irremediable mischief, which even his enemies must have in some sort lamented. In the encounters which took place in the months of March and July, 1795, between the French and the British fleets, which latter was at that time commanded by Lord Hotham, he no less eminently distinguished himself, and in the first of those naval skirmishes had the happiness of contributing to the partial success then obtained, by the spirited attack he made on the 12th, in conjunction with the Inconstant frigate, on the Ca Ira, of eighty guns.'

After Admiral Hotham's partial action of the 17th of July 1795, Capt. Nelson was sent with a light squadron to destroy the French convoys of provisions and stores in the bay of Alassio, which he executed. In April 1796, Sir John Jervis, (now Earl of St. Vincent) who had superseded Admiral Hotham, promoted Capt. N. to the temporary rank of Commodore, with a distinguishing pendant; in May, he removed into

into the Captain, of 74 guns; and in August, his rank was made permanent, and a captain was appointed under him in that ship.

'The services on which he was employed, till nearly the close of the year, were extremely important, although they afforded him no opportunity of displaying that brilliancy of character which has so uninterruptedly marked the greater part of the enterprizes in which he was engaged. The blockade of Leghorn, the capture of Porto Ferrajio, together with the island of Caprea, and the evacuation of Bastia, were each of them employments that required the most consummate abilities, the most spirited activity, and the soundest judgment; and where all were equally conspicuous, it would be derogating from one species of merit to bestow any particular commendation on another.

'After having convoyed the British troops, which had been employed in garrisoning the island of Corsica, to Porto Ferrajio, Commodore Nelson proceeded to St. Fiorenzo bay, where he rejoined the commander in chief, and immediately afterwards accompanied him to Gibraltar. In the month of December he received instructions to remove his broad pendant on board La Minerve, a frigate of thirty-two guns, commanded by Captain George Cockburn; and the Blanche frigate, of the same force, commanded by Captain Preston, being put under his orders, he was directed to proceed to Porto Ferrajio, for the purpose of conveying from thence the depot of naval stores which had been formed there, during the time the British fleet was stationed in the Mediterranean, to Gibraltar, where they were much wanted, in consequence of the change of station necessarily occasioned by the commencement of the war with Spain. While on his passage thither, the commodore had the fortune to fall in with two large Spanish frigates, during the night of the 19th of December. The commanding ship carried a poop light, and was immediately attacked by Mr. Nelson, who at the same time directed the Blanche to engage her consort. The encounter between the commodore and his antagonist commenced about forty minutes past ten at night; and after an unremitted as well as most spirited contest, which continued nearly three hours, the enemy's ship was compelled to surrender, having had one hundred and sixty-four men killed and wounded. Her mizen mast had fallen in the action; her main and fore masts were also so severely wounded that both of them went away on her first attempt to carry sail after her surrender. The prize was named La Sabina, a frigate of the first class, mounting forty guns; those on her main deck, being twenty-eight in number, were eighteen-pounders.'

Capt. Preston also silenced his antagonist: but her capture was prevented, and the Sabina finally retaken, by three other Spanish ships which now bore down; and from which the Minerve and Blanche escaped with difficulty.—Having accomplished the object of his mission, the Commodore sailed from Porto Ferrajo on the 29th of January 1797, with Sir Gilbert Elliott,

Elliott, late Viceroy of Corsica, and his suite. He joined the Admiral on the 13th of February, having been chased by the Spanish fleet, and resumed his station in the Captain just in time to prepare for the memorable action of the 14th, off St. Vincent's. The personal exertions of Commodore Nelson, in this combat, were so extraordinary, that we shall rather trespass on our limits than omit his own modest account of them, as communicated by him to Capt. Locker:

"At one, P. M., the Captain having passed the sternmost of the enemy's ships, which formed their van, and part of their centre, consisting of seventeen sail of the line, they on the larboard, we on the starboard tack, the admiral made the signal to tack in succession; but perceiving all the Spanish ships to bear up before the wind, evidently with an intention of forming their line, going large, and joining their separated divisions, at that time engaged with some of our centre ships, or flying from us—to prevent either of their schemes from taking place, I ordered the ship to be wore, and passing between the Diadem and Excellent, at a quarter past one o'clock, was engaged with the headmost, and, of course, leewardmost of the Spanish division. The ships which I knew were the Santissima Trinidada, of one hundred and thirty-six guns, San Josef, of one hundred and twelve, Salvador del Mundo, of one hundred and twelve, San Nicholas, eighty; another first-rate, and a seventy-four, names unknown.

"I was immediately joined and most nobly supported, by the Culloden, Captain Troubridge. The Spanish fleet, not wishing, I suppose, to have a decisive battle, hauled to the wind on the larboard tack, which brought the ships above mentioned to be the leewardmost and sternmost ships in their fleet. For near an hour I believe (but I do not pretend to be correct as to time), did the Culloden and Captain support this not only apparently but really unequal contest; when the Blenheim passing between us and the enemy, gave us a respite, and sickened the Dons. At this time the Salvador del Mundo, and San Isidro, dropped astern, and were fired into in a masterly style by the Excellent, Captain Collingwood, who compelled the San Isidro to hoist English colours; and I thought the large ship, Salvador del Mundo, had also struck: but Captain Collingwood, disdaining the parade of taking possession of a vanquished enemy, most gallantly pushed up with every sail set, to save his old friend and messmate, who was to appearance in a critical state. The Blenheim being ahead, the Culloden crippled and astern, the Excellent ranged up within two feet of the San Nicholas, giving a most tremendous fire. The San Nicholas luffing up, the San Josef fell on board her, and the Excellent passing on for the Santissima Trinidada, the Captain resumed her station abreast of them, and close alongside. At this time the Captain having lost her fore top-mast, not a sail, shroud, nor rope left, her wheel away, and incapable of further service in the line or in chase, I directed Captain Miller to put the helm a-starboard, and calling for the boarders, ordered them to board. The soldiers of the sixty-ninth, with an alacrity which will ever do

them credit, and Lieutenant Pearson of the same regiment, were almost the foremost on this service. The first man who jumped into the enemy's mizzen-chains was Captain Berry, late my first lieutenant (Captain Miller was in the act of going also, but I directed him to remain); he was supported by our spritsail yard, which hooked in the mizzen rigging. A soldier of the sixty ninth regiment having broken the upper quarter gallery window, I jumped in myself, and was followed by others as fast as possible. I found the cabin doors fastened, and some Spanish officers fired their pistols; but having broke open the doors, the soldiers fired, and the Spanish brigadier (commodore, with a distinguishing pendant) fell, as retreating to the quarter-deck. I pushed immediately onwards for the quarter-deck, where I found Captain Berry in possession of the poop and the Spanish ensign hauling down. I passed with my people, and Lieutenant Pearson, on the larboard gang-way to the forecastle, where I met two or three Spanish officers, prisoners to my seamen: they delivered me their swords. A fire of pistols or musquets opening from the admiral's stern-gallery of the San Josef, I directed the soldiers to fire into her stern, and calling to Captain Miller, ordered him to send more men into the San Nicholas, and directed my people to board the first rate, which was done in an instant; Captain Berry assisting me into the main chains. At this moment a Spanish officer looked over the quarter deck rail, and said they surrendered. From this most welcome intelligence, it was not long before I was on the quarter-deck, where the Spanish captain, with a bow, presented me his sword, and said the admiral was dying of his wounds. I asked him on his honour, if the ship surrendered. He declared she was; on which I gave him my hand, and desired him to call on his officers and ship's company and tell them of it; *and on the quarter-deck of a Spanish first-rate, extravagant as the story may seem, did I receive the swords of vanquished Spaniards, which as I received I gave to William Fearney, one of my bargemen,* who put them with the greatest *sang froid* under *his arm.* I was surrounded by Captain Berry, Lieutenant Pearson of the sixty-ninth regiment, John Sykes, John Thompson, Francis Cooke (all old Agamemnons), and several other brave men, seamen and soldiers. Thus fell these ships.

"N. B. In boarding the San Nicholas, I believe we lost about seven killed and ten wounded; and about twenty Spaniards lost their lives by a foolish resistance. None were lost I believe in boarding the San Josef."

Commodore Nelson was now created a Knight of the Bath and Rear Admiral of the Blue. In May, his flag being removed to the Theseus, he was appointed by the Earl of St. Vincent to the command of the blockading squadron off Cadiz; and while on this duty, he was engaged in his boat, during the night, in a severe contest with the Spanish commander of the gun-boats, who was subdued. Shortly afterward, he was detached on the unfortunate expedition against Teneriffe, in which he lost his right arm, by a cannon-shot; and from which

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the whole party re-embarked only through the clemency of the Spaniards. He now returned to England, for the restoration of his health; and on the 19th of December he again hoisted his flag, on board the Vanguard, and was ordered again to the Mediterranean. It was not till April 29. that he was able to rejoin Lord St. Vincent; and on the very next day he was dispatched with a small squadron to watch that armament of the enemy, which he was destined finally to destroy at the mouth of the Nile. Having been reinforced with ten more ships of the line, he commenced the extraordinary pursuit of Bonaparte's fleet, to Egypt, back to Sicily, and to Egypt again; finding them at length in the bay of Aboukir, and being rewarded for his anxiety and toil by the celebrated victory in which he took and destroyed eleven out of thirteen ships of the line. The Rear-Admiral received a wound in his forehead during this action, which was at first regarded as mortal, but which proved to be only superficial, though severe.—For this service he was created Baron Nelson of the Nile, &c. and received a large addition to his former pension.

From Aboukir, Lord Nelson returned to Naples, on the 22d of September, where he was welcomed with rapture.—In the cause of the Neapolitan monarch, the exertions of the British Admiral were now conspicuous. Italy was nearly overrun by the French Armies, and that King was obliged to seek refuge on board of the Vanguard. During these events, *i. e.* in May 1799, Lord Nelson was advanced to the rank of Rear-Admiral of the Red, and shifted his flag to the Foudroyant.—In a few months, his vigorous efforts, combined with an allied force, drove the French from the Neapolitan territories, and from the Papal states; Rome itself being evacuated by them in consequence of the blockade of Civita Vecchia by Commodore Trowbridge. The Sicilian King, thus restored to his throne, rewarded his deliverer by the grant of an estate in that country, of the annual value of 3000l. sterling, with the title of Duke of Bronte.

Malta, blockaded by Captain Ball, was starved into a surrender; and in coming to and escaping from this island, the two ships of the line which fled from Aboukir fell into the hands of Lord Nelson's cruizers.

The health of the noble Admiral being now again much impaired, he returned to England by Trieste through Germany, and arrived in London, Nov. 8, 1800.—In the following January, he was advanced to the rank of Vice-Admiral of the Blue; and in March he sailed in the St. George of 98 guns, as second in command under Sir Hyde Parker, for the purpose of opposing the Swedes, Danes, and Russians. On the 2d of

April

April 1801, Lord Nelson having been intrusted by Sir Hyde with the van squadron, and having shifted his flag to the Elephant, of 74 guns, that terrible conflict took place between the British and the Danes, before Copenhagen, which ended in the defeat of the latter, and the dissolution of the Northern Confederacy. Lord Nelson declared that this encounter was the most tremendous that he had ever witnessed; and his critical proposition for a truce alone perhaps secured the fortune of the day. The Vice-Admiral was now advanced to the dignity of Viscount;—and in July, he returned to England, in very ill health.

The invasion of this country being now much threatened, Lord Nelson was appointed to the command of a squadron for the defence of our southern coasts, and for the annoyance of the enemy. In this situation, he superintended some desperate but unsuccessful attacks on the flotilla at Boulogne.

A temporary peace now suspended the operations of our hero: but, on the recommencement of hostilities, he resumed his laborious and hazardous duties, and sailed for Gibraltar in the Victory, of 100 guns, 20th May 1803, to watch the armament at Toulon. A long scene of inactivity here awaited him; for he could find no enemy to face him. The French Admiral, however, at length effected his escape in January 1805; arrived at Cadiz; received a re-inforcement; and proceeded to the West Indies. In vain did Nelson seek him on the shores of Sicily and of Egypt, till he obtained better information; and in vain did he then chase him through the Leeward islands. The terror of his name drove the combined fleets back to Europe; and Lord Nelson arrived at Portsmouth on the 18th of August with only two ships; having detached most of his squadron to join the Channel fleet. In September he again sailed, to take the command of the force off Cadiz, in which port the combined squadrons then lay. On the 21st of October was fought the most extraordinary naval battle which our annals record; the enemy losing 20 out of 33 ships, opposed to only 27; and the victors having to mourn the death of their conquering chief! His remains were brought to England, and interred in the Cathedral of St. Paul with the most magnificent obsequies, at the public expence, Jan. 9, 1806.

Some quotations from Lord Nelson's correspondence shall now be introduced.—His first and his last letters to Captain Locker will form a striking comparison; the first written when he was a Lieutenant in that gentleman's ship and the Captain was on shore, in ill health: the other, penned when the writer had attained the most distinguished honors in his profession:

"My

"My most worthy Friend, *Lowestoffe, at Sea, Aug.* 12, 1777.

"I am exceedingly obliged to you for the good opinion you entertain of me, and will do my utmost that you may have no occasion to change it. I hope God Almighty will be pleased to spare your life, for your own sake, and that of your family; but should any thing happen to you (which I sincerely pray to God may not), you may be assured that nothing shall be wanting on my part, for the taking care of your effects, and delivering safe to Mrs. Locker such of them, as may be thought proper not to be disposed of. You mentioned the word "consolation" in your letter—I shall have a very great one, when I think I have served faithfully the best of friends, and the most amiable of women.

"All the services I can render to your family, you may be assured shall be done, and shall never end but with my life; and may God Almighty of his great goodness keep, bless and preserve you and your family, is the most fervent prayer of your faithful servant,

"Horatio Nelson.

"*P. S.* Though this letter is not couched in the best manner, be assured it comes from one entirely devoted to your service. H. N."

"My dear Friend, *Naples, July* 15, 1799.

"Although I am so ill that I can scarcely sit up, yet I will not let the courier go off, without assuring you that all your kindnesses to me are fresh in memory; I remember all my friends; I forgive, from my heart, my envious enemies. May God Almighty grant you, my revered friend, that health and happiness which has never yet been obtained by

"Your affectionate grateful friend,

"Nelson.

"My friend Troubridge is a general officer."

These letters evince the steadiness of Lord Nelson's friendship and gratitude, and are both expressive of those religious sentiments for which he was remarked. Another letter is also worthy of notice in the first of these points of view:

"My dear Friend, Palermo, Feb. 9th, 1799.

"I well know your own goodness of heart will make all due allowances for my present situation, in which truly I have not the time, or power to answer all the letters I receive at the moment; but you, my old friend, after twenty-seven years acquaintance, know that nothing can alter my attachment and gratitude to you; I have been your scholar. It was you who taught me to board a Frenchman, by your conduct when in the Experiment. It is you who always hold, "lay a Frenchman close and you will beat him;" and my only merit in my profession is being a good scholar. Our friendship will never end but with my life, but you have always been too partial to me.—

"I beg you will make my kindest remembrances to Miss Locker, and all your good sons, and believe me ever your faithful and affectionate friend,

"Nelson."

Several

Several letters relate to the subject of his early dispute respecting the Americans, which indicate the penetration, thought, and firmness that he ever manifested. Whether or not he was perfectly right, we cannot decide.—The whole of the correspondence displays the most friendly heart and the most active mind.—A great chasm occurs between 1797 and 1799, which entails silence concerning the Neapolitan transactions.

Lord Nelson's opinion of Corsica is strongly expressed:

'We have now done with Corsica; I have seen the first, and the last of that kingdom: its situation certainly was most desirable for us, but the generality of its inhabitants are so greedy of wealth, and so jealous of each other, that it would require the patience of Job, and the riches of Crœsus to satisfy them: they say themselves they are only to be ruled, by the ruling power shooting all its enemies, and bribing all its friends. They already regret our departure from them, for no more silver harvest will come to their lot. I remember when we quitted Toulon we endeavoured to reconcile ourselves to Corsica; now we are content with Elba—such things are: however, we have a fine port, and are at no expence for the government of the island.'

We could with satisfaction enter farther into the particulars with which this volume furnishes us: but it is time to arrest the pen, and to remember that we shall have other opportunities of adverting to the subject.

Mr. Charnock has much increased the size of his book, and, as most persons will probably think, has added to its value, by introducing biographical notices of all those eminent naval characters, whom the course of his narrative leads him to mention; as well as by transcribing collateral documents relative to his hero, dispatches, parliamentary votes, speeches, &c. These subjoined memoirs, however, violate the unity and interrupt the progress of the Nelsonian details. He has also given plans of the actions off St. Vincent's, Aboukir, Copenhagen, and Trafalgar, a portrait of Lord Nelson, a view of the boat fight in which he was engaged, (a poor engraving,) and a fac simile of his hand writing.—As a literary composition, the work has been so hastily compiled that it is not a fair object of criticism: it is also too interesting in its contents to admit of this minor consideration.

G. 2.

ART. X. *A Compendium of Modern Husbandry, principally written during a Survey of Surrey*, made at the Desire of the Board of Agriculture; illustrative also of the best Practices in the neighbouring Counties of Kent, Sussex, &c. In which is comprised an Analysis of Manures, shewing their Chemical Contents, and the proper Application of them to Soils and Plants of all Descriptions. Also an Essay on Timber, exhibiting a View of the increasing Scarcity of that important Article, with Hints on the Means of counteracting it; together with a variety of Miscellaneous Subjects peculiarly adapted to the present State of the internal Economy of the Kingdom. By James Malcolm, Land Surveyor to their Royal Highnesses the Prince of Wales, and the Dukes of York and Clarence. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 16s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1805.

WE have perused with much satisfaction those county surveys which have been executed under the direction of the Board of Agriculture, because, in addition to such articles of information as more immediately belong to them, they contain the reflections and disquisitions of sensible men on a variety of interesting subjects; some of which are intimately connected with the morals and internal prosperity of the kingdom. A county is a large district, which presents to the diligent scientific examiner an extensive field of observation. Confined as his inquiry may appear at the first view, its necessary bearings and relations are so numerous, that he finds his business multiplying on his hands and branching into diverse channels as he advances. Agriculture, strictly speaking, merely respects the cultivation of the earth: but it is impossible to study this important department of human industry, without considering for whom and by whom it is conducted; we must advert to the state of property, to the condition of proprietors, occupiers, and labourers, and of course to those customs, practices, and laws which regulate the different parts of the social machine.

An agricultural survey places before us the capabilities of nature in conjunction with the efforts of man, and has for its object the improvement of the district. Reporters, however, on these occasions, are very prone to indulge in speculations of amelioration and gain, without duly appreciating obstacles and contingencies; so that the practical farmer, who is obliged to contend with ungenial soils, variable elements, and the perverseness and villainy of human agents, rarely is able to realize those golden visions which the calculator, by the aid of generalities, pictures to the eye of hope. May not also the political economist inadvertently mislead Government as well as individuals, by over-rating our territorial resources and pro-

ductiveness? By fiscal experiments on agriculture, a minister might destroy "the hen that lays the golden egg." The improvement of a considerable portion of the country is a work of time; the return from farming capitals is slow; and we must patiently wait for, not rashly seize, those benefits which a state may expect to derive from the soil. Farmers are certainly fearful that the information, which is so industriously collecting, will be disadvantageous to their interests: but we trust that their suspicions are groundless. Mr. Malcolm, with his brother Reporters, professes his object to be 'to make bad farmers good ones,' and to render them truly alive to their own as well as to the general welfare. What success he will obtain, we shall not, any more than himself, presume to determine; nor how far his declaration of 'a want of talents' will plead his excuse for publishing three large volumes.

The plan, on which those reports proceeded that were professedly composed for the Board of Agriculture, is not followed on the present occasion. Mr. Malcolm has not confined himself to an account of Surrey, nor to the limits of a single volume: but, by the introduction of a variety of subjects, he has endeavoured to render his performance generally useful. We shall advert to some particulars which respect the county of Surrey, and also to the supplemental matter.

Mr. M. does not appear to have taken any pains to ascertain the exact quantity of surface which the county contains, but in one short sentence states that 'its greatest length from east to west is about 39 miles; its circumference 146 miles, and considered as an oblong square it contains 481,947 statute acres.' The proportion which the uncultivated parts bear to those that are cultivated is not given; and instead of a large map, which if accurately drawn would be of singular utility, we are presented with one which measures about 10 inches by 8, and is fit only for a lady's fan. It is indeed to be lamented that the Board of Agriculture should have allowed such miserable maps to be given with the County Reports; and this hint will be a public benefit if it should fortunately induce the Board in future to attend to the circumstance.

On the climate of Surrey, it is observed that

'Beyond Kingston, until you reach Guildford, and on the north west side of the road, the country is more flat, the air is mild, somewhat moist, but not wet; on the south east side, the land is more elevated for about six or seven miles acros, and the air is keener and dry. From Godalming to Haslemere, to the left, it partakes of humidity; to the right as far as Farnham it is dry, but rather cold; and thus continues more or less so to Bagshot, with the excep ion of the country about Worplesdon and Bishley, which is more flat, strong, humid, and cold; the reason of this diversity will naturally enough

appear when we come to speak of the soil and its situation. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Surrey may with great propriety be said to be congenial to the health and longevity of man, and to the growth of vegetation, of which many remarkable instances might be given. It possesses a superior advantage to Middlesex by the long continuance of the south west winds, which blow the smoke of London to the north and north east, and consequently from this county; and hence it is that so many physicians, when their patients require to be moved into the country for air, send them almost uniformly into Surrey.'

When from climate Mr. M. proceeds to notice the soil and situation of Surrey, he descants on its rich and varied landscapes, and enumerates those spots which are celebrated for the beauty of their scenery:

'It is to be understood that in each of the divisions of the county, the soil varies from a sand to a clay, from a chalk to a sand, and to a clay; but such as I have described appears to be very much the character of each division of the county. From this complexion, both of the air, soil, and situation, its various diversified formation into hill and dale, it will not be surprising that it should so abound with beautiful seats; no county can boast of so many. Some of the spots exhibit the most beautiful, some the most extensive, and others the most picturesque scenery, such as the chaste eye of even a Gilpin, or the more eccentric one of a Price, could not but admire. Who has seen the view from the Star and Garter, on Richmond Hill, without bestowing on it an expression of rapture? The terrace in Richmond Gardens, Box Hill, and Headly and Leith Hills near Dorking, Bansted Downs, Hind Hill, and Gratewood Hill near Godalming, Tilburster Hill near Godstone, are among the number that deserve commemoration; from the latter, on a clear day, an expanse of country to the east, south, and west opens to a prodigious extent.'

Among the principal places of the county, the author enumerates *Wonersh*, in order to give a lesson to cupidity, and to enforce that truly *golden* maxim, (we use the epithet in its strict sense,) "Honesty is the best policy."

'Wonersh (says he) which is now only a village, and near to which Lord Grantley has a seat, was formerly famed for its extensive manufactory of cloth, which was exported principally to the Canary Islands; but an over covetousness induced the manufacturers to strain their cloth farther than it would fairly bear, which of course so injured the reputation of it that they lost their customers, and the town dwindled away to its present state.'

The five rivers, of inferior magnitude to the Thames, which Mr. M. mentions as belonging to this county, are the Wandle, the Mole, the Way, the Lodden, and the Medway; which latter, though considered as a river of Kent, commences in the parish of Godstone, and offers its first tribute to Surrey. Besides

sides these, a small river rises at Ewell, turns several mills, and discharges itself into the Thames at Kingston.

A particular statement is given of the various manufactures which are prosecuted on the river Wandle, ("the blue transparent Vandalis" of Pope's Windsor Forest,) and it is indeed curious. This stream turns 38 mills within the short distance of about 10 miles, furnishes employment to more than 1700 people, and the capital embarked in the several manufactories is upwards of half a million sterling.

The vicinity of Surrey to the Metropolis occasions much of its soil to be employed not in the raising of crops but in the erection of houses; hence brick-making constitutes a prominent feature in this report; and here Mr. M. has introduced some remarks on the cause of that troublesome house-malady called the *dry rot*, which we shall transcribe for the consideration of gentlemen and builders:

'The excellency of bricks consists chiefly in the first and last operation; for bricks made of good earth, and well tempered, become solid and ponderous, and therefore will take up a longer time in drying and burning than our common bricks seem to require. It is also to be observed that the well drying of bricks, before they are burned, prevents cracking and crumbling in their burning; for when the bricks are too wet, the parts are prevented from adhering together. The best way of ordering the fire is, to make it gentle at first, and increase it by degrees, as the bricks grow harder. If those several operations were properly and duly attended to, we should not see such immense waste, and so great a profusion of unburnt and half-burnt bricks, called place bricks, as we constantly find on the outsides of our modern clamps. For want of due precaution the fire never reaches them in an equable degree, and therefore they ought to be totally disregarded and laid aside; but modern ingenuity, and the tricks of the builders, have found out a mode of using them, less objectionable to be sure, than if they were consigned to the outside walls, though properly they are not fit to be used any where. It is necessary that the public should be informed, that these place bricks are now made use of in the inside walls of houses of every denomination, from the hut to the palace; and that they are soft, subject to very quick decay, and wherever wet can at all get to them, they moulder away with great rapidity; nor is this the only objection to them: they are subject to be acted upon by every change of the weather, so that the walls become damp, and the plastering discoloured, causing the bond timbers and plates to rot; and for want of equal solidity with the external bricks, the walls crack, the timbers swag, because the bearing on them cannot be then any where equally poised.

'The dampness which so often affects the inside walls is attempted to be palliated, or removed, by the introduction of what is called battening, whereby an opening or cavity is left between the brick work or plaistering; but whoever has attentively observed the result of this invention, which in very many instances has fallen to my lot to notice, will see that the damp arising from these bricks engenders

mould, and is visible on the frame of the wood used in the battening; this mould is no doubt the secondary cause of the dry rot, since the origin must be in the bricks themselves.

'That this is the case may be deduced from this fact, that wherever a quantity of those bricks is heaped up together, for any length of time, they will upon separation be found to have their bases covered with a fine white net-work, especially those which are nearest the bottom. Hard burnt sound bricks never have this net work grow upon them, let them lay as long as they may in any situation. This net work then is the plantulæ of mould. The origin and increase of mould is nearly in proportion to the heat of the atmosphere; its appearance and vegetation are never more sudden than during the summer, and the reason seems to be, that the heat of the weather necessarily draws out the redundant moisture from the bricks, for want of a due circulation or air. This moisture attaches itself to the outside of the bricks and there remains, the heat not being sufficient to dry it up, but enough perhaps to produce a degree of warmth; it enters into a slow but certain process of fermentation; and, passing through a state of acidity to putrefaction, is of itself sufficient to engender mould. Sometimes it is very long before mould is produced on particular substances, either from the absence of the seed, or the substance not being well adapted for its vegetation; while in others, the seed has been known to vegetate in three hours. The mould from being first white turns yellowish, and at last blackens. As it approaches a state of maturity, a kind of black dust falls from it, which is the seed of the plantulæ; a quantity of this dust constitutes the powder, which blackens the hand when touched. As this dust and seed is so fine and infinite, it spreads with a rapidity equal to the state and condition of the substances which may be fit to receive it, and hence may attack a whole building, and become the means of endangering aud eventually destroying the most superb edifice.

'Another fact will confirm this reasoning. In pulling down the most ancient houses not an atom of dry rot has been visible, but merely a decay in the timbers occasioned by age, because the bricks inside and out were alike hard and sound: but where modern ones have been erected on the old sites, a very few years have been sufficient to prove that symptoms of dry rot have manifested themselves in the basement from the great degree of humidity which prevails there.

'If such bricks therefore are not timely removed, all the art of man cannot prevent the effects of the dry rot: it is the same with certain sorts of stone, which are always damp, be the weather what it may, and there the dry rot makes the greater havock.'

In the section on the size of farms, the author pronounces 170 acres to be the average of the county. He here delivers his opinion on the subject of engrossing farms, and contends that the practice operates beneficially for the public. A general decision on this head is scarcely admissible: but Mr. M.'s verdict is not more acceptable to farmers, than his decision

sion against the claims of Cottagers to right of commonage must be to Lords of Manors. It is the miserable policy of the present day to make the poor "*poor indeed;*" and when we have driven the pauper to the work-house, we complain of the expence of his maintenance.

A copious section is devoted to the subject of Leases; in which Mr. M. endeavours to persuade those gentlemen, who have declared against granting leases, that their resolution has an injurious tendency:

'The only possible reason (says he) why agriculture has flourished so much in England, and has attained its present pre-eminent rank in the eyes of all Europe, and why our neighbours the French are so far behind us in the management of their farms, is the security which leases have given to our farmers; and the want of them accounts for the miserable situation which the French farmer has always been in. Reverse however the scene, and I do not hesitate to say that the French farmer will soon be in the situation that our farmers are now in, both as to management and as to property; while ours will revert fast to the present situation of the French, in spite of all our knowledge and capital. The French farmers, with a great many of whom I have conversed very lately, I am sensible do not want skill or inclination to exert it, and some have exerted themselves at all risks, but the consequences have been such as to prevent a repetition; but let their landed proprietors give them permanency and security in their farms by well adapted leases, and a little management or relaxation of rent for the deficiency of capital, and such is the quality of their soil and the favourableness of their climate, that they would soon make a different figure from what they do now.'

We must pass over a long chapter on Tithes, in which Mr. M. delivers his adverse opinion without reserve; and in which he is particularly severe on those clergymen who *trench* on his own province, by taking on themselves, in addition to their sacred function, 'the office of Land Stewards.' Men who obtain, without sowing or reaping, a tenth of the clear produce of the soil, might surely, as Mr. M. thinks, look without envy on the Land Steward's *poor* pickings. Perhaps, however, some clergymen have discovered that these pickings are not despicable; and that the gentlemen gatherers soon contrive to cast off that hateful thing yclept Poverty. Leaving this matter to be settled by the parties themselves, we proceed to that important chapter in which 'the Management of the Poor and their claims on society are considered;' and to Mr. M.'s views of this subject we heartily subscribe. He observes:

'Had the statute of Elizabeth been upon all occasions fully and unequivocally acted upon, there is no question at all but there would at this time have been fewer poor all over the kingdom; the class of people next above them would have been more comfortable and happy,

and the present enormous burthen of the poor's rates would have been a mere nothing.'

Now, however, the poor rates are very heavy; and most parishes are led by a junto who regulate all proceedings, and set all moderate opposition to their plans at defiance. The author thus proceeds:

'That which is the necessary business of every parishioner who pays to the rates is unfortunately the business of but few; we suffer an immense revenue to be levied upon us for two very laudable purposes, to relieve distress, and to encourage industry; and because those who are qualified by education and rank in life do not choose to give themselves the trouble of seeing to the disposal of this vast revenue, we suffer a great part, equal perhaps to one half of it, to be perverted and disposed of in the most profuse and shameful manner; which honestly and fairly applied to the purposes of this act of Elizabeth, the poor would be more decently and respectably maintained, and the other half would necessarily remain in the pockets of those from whom the whole is now with so much rigour, and often cruelty, exacted.

'Having given this subject a great deal of consideration, and having endeavoured to collect the sense of many very high characters in the county; a notion seems very prevalent, that it is more advantageous to employ the poor in various branches of manufacture at their own houses, than in places of more public reception, either as workhouses, houses of industry, &c. If they are people that can be trusted, I think the matter will admit of no doubt; this is not the opinion of Count Rumford, from whom I dissent with great deference; for it is but too true, that crowded workhouses, as they are constructed and conducted, in which are assembled the good and the bad, the old and the young, the healthy and unhealthy, are introductory of the most serious evils. If they are assembled in one room at work, their health, and not less their morals, are sure to be contaminated; the most horrid and depraved language is constantly assailing the ears of the honest, the young and weak minds, and with such examples eternally before them, they must almost be something more than human, if they escape the contagion. If they are sober and honest they will do more work at home than in any public institution whatever; and though they should earn less, yet as it is well known that seven or eight shillings at home will go as far as 18 or 20 shillings in the workhouse; there is every reason why the former mode should be preferred to the latter. But again, if the poor should at their own houses not earn so much as they may require to support their families, is it not much better to find them work, and pay them for what they do, than pay them for living in idleness?'

The great increase of public houses in this county is a serious and just ground of lamentation with the reporter, who attributes to this cause the increasing immorality and consequent wretchedness of the poor. Though the remark, with which Mr. M.'s section on the state of the poor concludes, has been frequently made,

made, we shall insert it, for the very reason that the clergyman gave for often preaching the same old sermon, viz. that he had not yet found his people the better for it:

'Charity consents to offer an asylum to the aged and infirm, let their former condition of life have been what it may, so that it has been honest; but it is no charity to rob the industrious and sober, the little shop-keeper and the numerous tribe of people of scanty fortune, to support the idle and the profligate; a distinction should be made therefore between such characters, sufficient to hold out a warning to all classes; and not by giving them better fare, and better treatment than those, who are contributing to their support, can afford to give themselves; if you do, it is the sure way to lessen that quantity of valuable appropriate labour, which is in a great degree the source of the riches of the state; and it tends to add such an increase to the rates, as it is difficult to say at what point it may stop.'

It is stated that a scarcity of labourers appears throughout the county, particularly in harvest-time, which is attributed to the falling off in the number of the Irish who formerly afforded assistance at this season. No rural artificer is specified, excepting the two Corbets of Pile Hill, Woking, who are celebrated for the soundness and neatness of their thatching. If these men deserve the commendation of the author, we are happy in repeating it; and we should deem it good policy, in all the county reporters, to give the names of the best wheelwrights, carpenters, smiths, &c. as a stimulus to genius and industry.

Under the head of *Implements*, the thrashing machine is warmly recommended: but, if Mr. M.'s arguments are not more correct than his classical strictures, this part of the work is of little value. Here unfortunately the author, forgetting his motto *Res spectatur non verba*, boldly ventures to criticise Dryden's translation of a passage in Virgil's Georgics, which is introduced in a *learned* history of the progress of thrashing. The two lines which are quoted from the first Georgic are not correct. If Mr. M., instead of confiding to his friend Mr. John Brown, had turned to the passage in Virgil, he would have found that three lines intervene between the first and the second in his quotation; and that, though the mode of separating the grain from the straw is not the same as that which was used in Virgil's time, Dryden could not have better rendered *Tribula* than by *flail*. We shall leave, however, the *agrestibus arma* of the ancients, to attend to the author's panegyric on the Thrashing Machine.

'From the most minute attention bestowed on this subject, I am confident an extra quantity of corn, equal, in ordinary years, to £5 per cent, some go so far as to say equal to £10 per cent upon the whole

whole produce of the farm, in some cases to one shilling a bushel on wheat, and generally to twenty shillings per acre on the whole wheat crop, will be given by the thrashing machine more than by the flail; besides innumerable other advantages which accompany that machine. Indeed the loss by the flail has long been proverbial, and the best farmers were obliged to submit to losses of this nature, because they could not be remedied; but with the thrashing machine no corn need be lost, as every particle of grain is scutched off, when the machine is constructed upon right principles'

The following is Mr. Malcolm's calculation of the amount of the probable savings which would accrue to the public, if these machines were universally used:

'The extent of ground, annually employed in Great Britain, in the raising of corn may be computed at seven millions five hundred thousand acres, and the average produce of the different grains at three quarters per acre, as below that increase no farmer can raise it with profit. Mr. Middleton, however, states the whole quantity of land in aration to be 14 millions, of which eight millions four hundred thousand are in corn, and beans; the five millions six hundred thousand being in clover, rye, grass, one year's ley, turnips, and other roots, and fallow. I think however this quantity is overcharged, as well as that the other is underrated, as will be hereafter shewn.

'The produce of three quarters per acre is as nearly however correct as the nature of the subject will admit. According to Sir John Sinclair's hypothesis, he supposed there were only five millions of acres annually employed in raising of grain, but this must certainly be erroneous; for if the population of the island be ten millions, the produce of these acres would be far below what is required for the support of that number of people, independent of what is necessary for the feeding of horses, and seed for the next crop.

'In the reprinted survey of the county of Stafford, is a pretty just calculation of the number of acres annually sown in that county, which amount to one hundred and fifty thousand acres. Now as Stafford is not a corn county, I do not take much latitude when I fix upon it to average the whole counties of England; this would make the total quantity sown in that kingdom amount to six millions of acres. The remaining one million five hundred thousand acres I suppose to be sown in Scotland and Wales, which make their produce only equal to ten English counties.

'If seven millions five hundred thousand acres be annually sown in Britain, and the average produce amount to three quarters per acre, then the total quantity of grain annually raised in Britain would be twenty-two millions five hundred thousand quarters.

'I have already said, that the thrashing machine, from its superior powers, will give one twentieth more grain than when the operation of thrashing is performed by the flail. This furnishes an increased quantity of one million one hundred and twelve thousand five hundred quarters: which taken at the average price of 32 shillings per quarter, for all grains, amount to £1,781,250; add to this the difference of expence between thrashing with the above machine and the flail, which

which may be stated at one shilling per quarter, (although when the machines are wrought by wind or water, the difference is more than double that sum) this on 22,500,000 quarters is £1,225,000, the whole amounting to £2,906,250.'

Well might the author add that he scarcely expects to be credited, when he states so vast an amount of saving; and perhaps this is one of those instances in which only a particular view is taken of a subject, without respect to a variety of circumstances that ought to be admitted into the calculation. We readily, however, agree with Mr. M. that the Thrashing Machine is a very useful invention.

A long dissertation on *Fallowing* is inserted: but we shall leave this to speak for itself, in order to find some space for Mr. M.'s observations on the liquors of the English people, *Beer*, *Ale*, and *Porter*, which he thinks have received greater deterioration since the seasons of 1800 and 1801, than they have experienced from the time of Henry I. to that period. According to this writer, malt and hops are so far from being necessary to constitute ale and porter, that both are now manufactured without them. The ingredients of the former he states to be 'Grains of paradise, capsicum, coriander, *coculus Indicus*, quassia, liquorice, brown sugar, shag tobacco, *sal martis*, or green vitriol;' and he enumerates among the materials of the latter, '*Coculus Indicus*, liquorice, or Spanish juice, treacle, shag tobacco, alum, *sal martis*, green vitriol, isinglass, and quassia.'—We should be sorry to think that all these substances are commonly employed in the manufacture of porter: but we are convinced that it is now become a very unwholesome beverage; that articles are employed in it which ought to be prohibited; and that some stop ought to be put to the public sale of deleterious compounds. Mr. M. hopes that such members of the Board of Agriculture, as have seats in parliament, will take up the matter for the benefit of immense numbers of their fellow-creatures.

Of the state of the markets, and the tricks of salesmen, Mr. Malcolm is well aware; as may be seen by turning to his chapter on *Forestalling*, &c.

Hints are given respecting Guide Posts on Cross Roads, which are not sufficiently adopted even in this admired county; and on the subject of wheels, Mr. M. notices the great injury done to the roads by the waggons: which, instead of rolling on wheels with flat surfaces, have a projecting tire or plate of iron in the middle, by which the effect on the road is the same as if a narrow wheeled waggon with the same load and drawn by the same number of horses had been employed. As our roads, especially near the metropolis, are very bad, and

materials

materials for repairing them are become scarce, this circumstance merits the attention of Parliament.

Pisè Walls are not recommended by Mr. M.; and his objections to them are the result of experience.

Under the article *Sheep*, particular attention is given to the Merino or Spanish breed. The objections which have been urged against this race of sheep are answered, and the adoption of it is strongly recommended: but, as Mr. M. has been anticipated in his remarks by other writers, we shall not copy from this part of the work.

With a large extract from Dr. Harrison's History of the Rot in Sheep, and with short notices on Lambs, Swine, and Poultry, the first volume concludes.—*Manures* constitute the subject of the first chapter of the 2d volume; and the reader will believe that it is treated at some length, when we inform him that nearly 227 pages are occupied in the discussion. If the farmer has patience to read through these details, he may collect some hints that will reward him for his trouble: but, had Mr. M. been more concise, the value of his communication would not have been diminished. He gives a list of 24 different manures, and of 9 Top-dressings, to each of which a distinct section is assigned: we must excuse ourselves, however, from following the author into his *primo*, *secundo*, *tertio*, *quarto*, &c.

The next chapter is intitled *Cultivated Grain*, and extends through 268 pages. Here we are informed that about 50,000 acres are cultivated annually with wheat in the county of Surrey; that the quantity of Rye is not more than 150,000 bushels; that it produces of Barley 640,000 bushels, and of Oats 286,000 bushels, per annum.

On the subject of *Mildew*, or Blight in Corn, Mr. M. informs us that he has endeavoured in vain to communicate this disease by strewing the powder or dust of infected plants on the ears of healthy corn; and that he inclines to think that 'the disease is produced by something inimical in the weather, which causes a stagnation in the juices of the plant, and thus becomes a fit subject for the seeds of parasitical plants to be lodged on and vegetate.' An opinion similar to this we have more than once hazarded; founded on the well-known fact that the matrix of all fungi is vegetable putrefaction; or that fungi do not begin to shoot till vegetable decay commences. In this chapter, the culture of Beans, Pease, Tares, Turnips, Rape, Cabbage, Potatoes, Carrots, and Parsnips, is amply noticed.

As the County of Surrey (particularly the parish of Farnham) has acquired celebrity on account of the management and superior quality of its *Hops*, this vegetable was intitled to a distinct

distinct chapter, and has obtained it. The particulars respecting the planting, growth, picking, drying, bagging, and produce, are exhibited; as well as the diseases to which the hop is subject. While Mr. M. recommends the culture of this valuable plant, he cautions persons from sleeping under the shade of a thick plantation of hops in the day-time, since death would probably be the consequence.

The subjects of the third volume are Grasses, Flax, Hemp, Furze, Physical Plants, Timber, Orchards, Roads, Common Fields, Draining, and Rotation of Crops: but, having already extended this article beyond the limits within which we purposed to confine it, we shall now restrict ourselves to the Essay on Timber, which presents to a naval country very serious matter for consideration. Our annual consumption, and the probable duration of the present stock, are first calculated:

'It appears that the navy of this kingdom consumes annually nearly, if not above 117,000 loads of timber, and the quantity consumed in all the different mercantile yards throughout the kingdom, is little, if any thing short of 100,000 loads more, to which may be added 10,000 loads at least for private provincial purposes, and the otal quantity will be somewhere about 227,000 loads of timber cut down and consumed every year.

'In order to ascertain the quantity of timber or number of trees now growing in South Britain, averaging ten feet meetings, I have had recourse to the following calculation. Though it may be far from the truth, yet in my communications with different persons, stewards as well as timber dealers, many seem to think that the difference cannot be a great deal either way; and it may lead others who may be fond of contemplating these subjects, who have more time and abilities than I possess, to investigate the point more minutely.

'The mode I adopted was as follows; supposing Great Britain to contain 108,000 square miles; equal to 69,120,000 square acres, and as the Board of Agriculture have ascertained that there are 7,888,977 acres of wastes, these I deduct, together with 4,231,023 acres for downs, roads, rivers, canals, water, towns and villages, from the total number of square acres, and that leaves me 57,000,000 of acres.

'Suppose we admit that there may be five trees averaging ten feet in every twenty acres, it will give us 12,250,000 trees, which being divided by 227,000, the number said to be annually consumed, and the result will be that it will take near 54 years to consume them; but as scarce any thing less than 20 feet meetings will suit our dock yards, and as that size and upwards will necessarily decrease the proportion by increasing the distance, I think I may venture to say that if we go on cutting as fast as we have done for the last ten years; every large stick, at least down to that size that can be come at, will be consumed in thirty years.'

By thus pointing to our nearly exhausted forests, Mr. M. does not mean to excite a panic but to awaken prudence. He cautions

cautions us against depending on a foreign supply, and exhorts us to lose no time in raising new forests in the room of those which have been consigned to the ocean. The enclosures, which have been made on the royal property, he considers, as he well may, as very inadequate to our future wants. We wish that Mr. M. may not preach in vain.

Though we have not adverted to all the topics discussed in this publication, we have exhibited enough to shew the nature of the undertaking and the mode of its execution. As a compilation, the work may be useful to the agriculturist: but the style is incorrect, and occasionally the expressions are too pompous for a book which is intended for the farmer's table.

Mo. Y.

ART. XI. *An Essay on the Spirit and Influence of the Reformation by Luther.* The Work which obtained the Prize on this Question, (proposed by the National Institute of France, in the Public Sitting of the 15th Germinal in the Year X) "What has been the Influence of the Reformation by Luther on the Political Situation of the different States of Europe, and on the Progress of Knowlege." By C. Villers. Faithfully translated from the last Paris Edition by B. Lambert. With a Portrait of Luther. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Jones. 1805.

ART. XII. *Essay on the Spirit and Influence of the Reformation of Luther*, &c. &c. translated, and illustrated with copious Notes, by James Mill, Esq. 8vo. 9s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1805.

AMONG the phænomena of the present age, the work before us will not rank as the least remarkable. To behold an elaborate and satisfactory account of Luther's reformation, an accurate estimate of its importance, and a comprehensive view of its various benefits, issue from a catholic metropolis, under the authority of its incorporated science and literature, is at once a novel and a gratifying sight! We cannot witness the just tribute which is thus paid to the memory of the illustrious reformer, nor listen to these liberal testimonies to his inestimable services,—borne in a place in which within our recollection he would have been treated as a detestable heretic and a schismatic, and in which more recently he would have been branded as a hypocrite and a fanatic,—without admitting that our age, however unfavourable its aspect may be in some respects, furnishes one striking proof of the progress of the human mind. We are told that the performance before us has circulated widely in every part of Europe; and we rejoice in the intelligence, since we know not any publication so well calculated to ameliorate the Roman catholic religion in the

countries

countries in which it is exclusively established *. It is, however, much to be feared that the present agitated state of Europe will prevent it from immediately producing any good effects.

The Lutheran writers Sleidan and Seekendorf have detailed the history of their sect in the true spirit of philosophy; and on the score of impartiality in narration and candid reflections, they left little to be desired. The sole advantage which we have over them is that we are able at this day, from a more favourable station, to connect with the grand revolution which they so faithfully described, abundantly more of its consequences than it was in their power to delineate. From this advantageous position, M. Villers has surveyed the vast extent which it commands, with an eye which has permitted nothing of importance to escape it. If he found most of the regions within his vast range already illumined, such was not the case of all of them; and into these he has had the merit of introducing the light of day. He truly observes, that 'we are at present better situated than ever to judge of a revolution which broke out three hundred years ago: let us consider what was before it, and what has happened since; let us hear all parties, look around us, see what exists at the present day, and judge.' The course which he recommends he appears to have followed with peculiar success; and the ingenuous inquirer, who duly profits by the aid which is here afforded him, will not find it difficult to tread over the ground with similar, if not precisely the same advantage.

When the mention of England occurs in this work, the reader will discern some oversights, and a few mistakes of no great moment; the former, perhaps, are owing to that jealousy which most of the modern French literati have either really felt, or been obliged to assume from deference to their military ruler: who seems to be of opinion that the fame and character of a nation, like those of an individual, may be borne down by ve-

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* On this point, we quote a sensible remark of Mr. Mill, in his preface:

'Were the Roman Catholics of Ireland delivered from those circumstances which lead them to regard the Protestants as their enemies, and brought to look without suspicion on any thing presented to them by Protestants, a book like this, in which the defects of the papal system, and its evil tendency with regard to all the best interests of men, are more fully and accurately pourtrayed than they have ever yet been, could not fail, approved too as it has been by Catholics, and in a catholic country, to have the most powerful effects on the minds of all the best informed and superior classes; effects which would speedily descend from them to their inferiors.'

hement

hement and reiterated calumnies. M. Villers does not, however, as many others have done, shamelessly abandon himself to purposes of this kind; he is only chargeable with limiting us in some instances to a less liberal allowance of praise than that to which we are intitled. To his credit also be it admitted that such is not always his conduct; and it will he our painful duty, in one or two cases, to disclaim, as not belonging to us, the commendation which he has bestowed on us. Among the omissions of which we complain, is the little notice which he takes of Wickliff; who, undoubtedly, till the appearance of Luther, was the greatest luminary that has shone in the Christian world since the apostolic times. The exertions of Parliament in opposition to papal extortions, the spirit of inquiry into ecclesiastical abuses, and the more just notions of religion, which his labours occasioned,—and which, to all appearance, were only prevented from maturing, in consequence of the devotion to the clergy which the usurpers of the House of Lancaster found it necessary to affect;—these occurrences, of which England has to boast, deserved more consideration among the predisposing causes of the reformation, than has been allowed to them by M. Villers.

The crazy structure of the papal fabric, and the hollow supports on which it rested, are here well described. In order to understand the following passage, the reader ought to be apprized that the author has been giving an account of the religious houses, and of the benefits which had resulted from them. He then proceeds:

'If churchmen preserved the slight tradition of knowledge in this manner, it must also be confessed that, in their hands, it sometimes became dangerous, and was converted to pernicious uses by its depositaries. The domination of Rome, erected upon a scaffolding of false historical proofs, required the aid of these faithful auxiliaries, who, on the one side, were to employ their half-knowledge in fascinating every eye, and, on the other, to prevent those eyes from discovering the true light, or being illuminated by the torch of criticism. The local usurpations of the clergy, being, in many places, founded on similar titles, stood in need of similar means of support. It therefore followed, that the small portion of knowledge which was permitted, must have been mingled with errors, and that nations must have been kept in profound ignorance, the foster parent of superstition. Study was rendered as inaccessible as possible to the laity: that of the ancient languages was treated as a monstrosity and an idolatry. The reading of the holy writings, that sacred patrimony of all Christians, was particularly and severely interdicted: to read the Bible, without permission of the superiors, was a crime: to translate it into the vulgar tongue was a temerity deserving of extreme punishment. The popes had very good reasons for preventing the words of Jesus Christ from reaching the people, and for interrupting the direct com-

munication between the gospel and the Christian. When objects of such importance as public belief and public worship are kept in mystery by compulsion, the darkness must be universal and impenetrable. The numerous legions of mendicant monks not being sufficient for this purpose, the horrible inquisition was devised, to extinguish every spark of knowledge which might appear through the gloom of night, in blood and in tears.'

It is a very ingenious part of this essay, which points out the different aspects which catholicism, previously to the time of Luther, exhibited in different countries; and which were occasioned by variance in the tempers, habits, and circumstances of the people inhabiting them. The author first introduces the Italians:

'The Italian, never master of his own territory, always oppressed and subjugated, naturally became deceitful, cunning, dissimulating, selfish. Commerce constantly enriched him; but he hastened to consume, in enjoyment, the wealth which he foresaw might soon be snatched from him by violence. A taste for luxury, pomp, and voluptuousness, with that of the fine arts, became his consolation. The magnificence of the ancient ruins which surrounded him, influenced that which he gave to all his works, to all his religious edifices. Worship became the business of the senses, and religion a mythology; splendid ceremonies superseded simple prayers; saints and images became the intercessors with an almost forgotten God, and the immediate objects of devotion. No doubt the populace, and uninformed men, would adhere very strongly to this system of superstition, which captivated their senses, and lulled all their vices: but what wonder if he, who began to think and examine, should at once and entirely reject this system, where he could discover only the work of man, and that he should remain without a spark of religion? It was a necessary consequence that the Italian must be a papist or an atheist; he must either adore our Lady of Loretto, or not adore at all: hence there never was so many atheists as in the country and neighbourhood of the soverign pontiffs. The most violent bigotry, or the incredulous libertinism of *Aretin*, is the inevitable lot of those who no longer give credit to all their religion, or no longer discern its spirit.'

He thus contrasts the countrymen of the reformer with the degenerate descendants of the conquerors of the world:

'What a different appearance was offered by Saxony! Its people had never been softened either by luxury and opulence, or by too mild a climate. There, resided an indigenous nation, energetic, open, who, from the ninth century to our era, had never been subjugated. On the banks of the Elbe they stopped the flight of the Roman eagles which was unable to penetrate into their provinces. In later times this nation had given conquerors to Europe; the Angles, the Normans, the Burgundians, the Franks, swarms broke off from Saxony, had subdued Great Britain, Gaul, and other provinces of the west. Those who continued on their own territory,

attached to their ancient and simple national worship, had allowed the remainder of Europe to embrace Christianity, without being tempted to imitate it, and to quit a creed, with which was interwoven the memory of the illustrious actions of their forefathers. When, after a desperate resistance of three-and-thirty years, *Charlemagne* succeeded in compelling them to receive Christianity, they adopted it with sincerity and simplicity; but it may be supposed that it never would become to them what it had become to the Italians. Here it attracted the eye less, and affected the heart more: there it was more of *worship;* here it was more of *religion.* Serious men, of manners generally pure, naturally practised a purer and more spiritual Christianity. They always bore the yoke with which the court of Rome had burthened them with secret impatience, and they threw it off on the first opportunity which offered: but, in rejecting this parasitical covering, which was grafted on the gospel, the gospel itself remained to them; they had not stifled its spirit; papism was not the total of religion to them; it was still of importance to them to have a religion; an interest in religious concerns was alive and active in them; they were capable of a reformation.

'The intellectual improvements of the two people differed in the same proportion. The fine arts, every thing conducive to the enjoyments of taste, every thing flattering to the sensibility, physicial or moral, had become the objects of Italian activity. The calm, equal, persevering activity of the Saxons, was directed to the abstract sciences, to philosophy, to historical researches. When the reformation burst forth, there was not a single theologian of Italy capable of encountering those of Saxony; some of them had the presumption to attempt it, a presumption always the associate of ignorance; they were defeated, and covered with confusion. In revenge, Italy boasted loudly of her poets and her painters; she had not produced a *Luther*, but Saxony had not produced an *Ariosto.*'

We cannot withhold from our readers the author's striking portrait of this great benefactor of mankind:

'*Martin Luther*, a doctor, priest, and Augustine monk, was, at that time, professor of philosophy and theology in the new university of Wittemberg, where an excellent and rigid spirit of assiduity, of love of the sciences, of true religion, and of liberty of thought prevailed. *Luther*'s parents were poor; his talents alone had raised him to the situation he filled He was among the first who applied with ardour to the study of the new knowledge, which was cultivated by the most eminent geniuses of this century. The first rays of the rising sun had no sooner struck the high places, and most elevated summits, than Luther discovered, before the multitude, the new day which began to break. He devoted all his intellectual powers to the succes of reviving letters, watched their progress, and rejoiced at the victory obtained by the partisans of the ancient languages over the inquisitors of Cologne: he had also acquired celebrity by some good productions of this description. Supported by an indefatigable zeal, by a wonderful memory, he had acquired the most perfect acquaintance with the holy writings, the fathers, and other ecclesiastical antiquities.

tiquities. One of his principal objects was to overturn the *scholastic divinity*, by banishing *Aristotle* from the domains of theology, and by demonstrating, from this singular compound of the logic of pagan philosophy with the doctrine of christianity, how much the first had been misunderstood, and both had been corrupted. In every encounter he overwhelmed the scholastics with his arguments and his wit, and covered their science with confusion and ridicule. His individual character, which has had such influence on that of the reformation, was energy and uprightness. Ardent and calm, high spirited and humble at the same time; irritable and warm in his language, when provoked by injurious treatment; mild, and inimical to every species of violence in actions; jovial, open, of ready wit, and even a pleasant companion at the table of the great; studious, sober, and a stoic in himself; courageous and disinterested, he exposed himself with tranquillity to every risk, in support of what he believed to be the truth. Commanded to appear before the diet of Worms, he presented himself there, notwithstanding the terrible and very recent example of *John Huss*, with dignity, simplicity, and firmness. Far from setting Rome at defiance in the outset, he wrote submissively to the pope, and exhibited no other appearance of superiority but that of his immense knowledge over *Cajetan* and the other theologians, deputed by Rome to convert him. Harassed afterwards with insults and outrages, he replied to them with animation: excommunicated by the pope, he publicly threw the bull of anathema into the fire. *Luther* knew all the intrinsic weakness and abuses of the pontifical court. He had been sent to Rome on the business of his order, some years before, and there every thing which struck his eye filled his heart with indignation. It is very probable that from that time, he secretly conceived, if not the design, at least the wish, for the deliverance of his country; and, like his ancient countryman *Arminius*, who had served in the Roman legions in Italy, before he repelled the same legions from Germany, it was in Rome that he learned to despise that Rome, which at a distance, appeared so formidable. From such characteristics we cannot misconstrue one of those superior beings, who, though participating in some of the defects of their age, are made to govern it, and carry it with them on the road to perfection. I may also add that, after having refused the offers of the court of Rome; after having been so many years the founder and almost patriarch of a new church; after having been the friend, the adviser, the spiritual father of so many princes, who, through the reformation, had been enriched with all the possessions of the clergy, of which he might have obtained a rich share, *Luther* lived and died in a state bordering on poverty, and left to his wife and children only the esteem due to his name.'

M. Villers is of opinion that, notwithstanding the general dispostions favourable to the reformation,

'Notwithstanding the universally acknowledged want of a reform in the church; notwithstanding the eloquence and the strength of *Luther*, this memorable revolution would, doubtless, never have been consolidated, it never would have acquired a political consistence, if

another interest besides that of religion and truth had not lent it support, and made it an interest of state. The princes of the north of the empire, to whom resistance to ambitious Austria was next to impossible with their ordinary means, saw, in the new enthusiasm of their people, an unhoped for opportunity of obtaining extraordinary succours, and of opposing the whole mass to the imperial arms. An intimate union between each prince and his people, as well as an alliance between the whole of these provinces, and these people, which before would have been a chimerical enterprize, became a necessary consequence of the common interest which spoke to all hearts. Besides the temptation of the treasures of the clergy, which each prince added to his own revenue, the allurement of independence, the gratification of an inveterate hatred against the court of Rome, all contributed to force the acquiescence of the chiefs, and to hurry them down the same torrent with their people. Whatever might have been their motives, it cannot be denied that the league of Smalcald was the first effective union of free princes and states against their oppressors, in modern Europe ; that it laid the foundation of a better conduct, and of liberty of conscience.'

Such a view of the affair will not lower this great event in the estimation of any considerate mind. Providence, which intended to effect this important change for the benefit of the world, had so ordered the course of things, that political motives and temporal incentives should co-operate with the moral convictions of men, in inciting them to effect the grand atchievement of a religious reformation.

The political good effects which flow from individual self value, from enlightened public opinion, and from that common interest which governors and governed feel, where protestantism is professed, are eloquently and energetically described by this author. The press has never produced a work which more deserves a perusal from those catholics, who are in a situation to comprehend and to profit by it.

M. Villers ably criticizes the conduct of Henry VIII. 'Had this monarch,' he says, 'adopted Lutheranism, and established it in his dominions, England would have been as peaceable as Denmark or Sweden.' We admit the conclusion to be probable, but does the remark become the professed advocate and panegyrist of the reformation ? We think it likely, with him, that, had this measure been adopted by that capricious sovereign, fewer religious differences would have agitated the subsequent reigns ; that no puritans would have disturbed the governments of Elizabeth and James ; that the commotions, which under Charles overturned the altar and the throne, would never have happened ; that nonconformity would not have reared its head so high under the second Charles, nor legalized dissent have kept alive religious contention to the present moment.

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We suspect, however, that there is little kindness in wishing us to have been exempted from these trials. Had we insured to ourselves the dead calm which a more consistent conduct on the part of Henry would in all probability have introduced, should we have been the highly enlightened, the highly free and privileged people which we are now allowed to be? Would the empire have reached the power and consideration which it now enjoys? Should we, in matters of civil and religious freedom, have been a pattern to the rest of the world? Should we have so nicely ascertained the limits of civil authority and the rights of conscience? Should we have been able to boast of so many benefactors to science, of so many eminent men of letters, of such progress in all the useful arts, in all that advances the strength and prosperity of a state? Could we have vaunted that galaxy of learned and able divines which it would require volumes summarily to characterize and describe; and which no country, down to the middle of the last century, could parallel? The opposition in the church has been of incalculable advantage; it has had the most salutary influence on our intellectual attainments, our liberties, our pursuits, and our manners. The wish that Britain had never been the seat of religious differences may suit the citizen of a rival nation, but it cannot have place in the bosom of an enlightened subject of this isle. The effects of those contentions are elsewhere not ill described by the author himself, when he states that we stand indebted to the commotions which we have undergone, 'for the energy which characterizes us; the profound love of liberty for which so much blood has been shed; the tendency to meditation left by religious exaltation; and the toleration of all religions, which naturally succeeds the intoxication of fanaticism.'

The story of our civil troubles is told in the most confused manner, without regard to time, place, or the order of events: indeed this part is a foul blemish in the work, a disgrace to the writer, and to the very learned and enlightened persons who have given it their sanction. As nothing occurs in the whole course of the essay which is executed in the same slovenly style, we are not without our suspicions that the offensive picture was sketched in order to gratify the propensity of the ruling powers. We are able in no other way to account also for the wanton reflections which the author pours out on the country of the brave Sobieskys, unfortunate Poland. These appear to be sacrifices which the writer, or the learned body for whom he wrote, deemed it necessary to make, in order to insure publicity to numerous invaluable observations.

Considerable as is the space which this article will occupy, we cannot omit the masterly sketch which the author

has given of the famed school of Loyola; never has it been better delineated, nor its leading features more accurately marked:

'It has been already said that the Jesuits were intrusted with the greater part of the public instruction, in the Catholic states. Europe had already tasted of the tree of knowledge; its light had spread into all parts, and had made a rapid progress; it had become impossible to oppose it openly. The safest expedient now was, not to combat the science, but to get possession of it to prevent it from being injurious: not being able to stop the torrent, it was necessary to dig a channel for it where it might fertilize the soil of the church instead of destroying it. To well-informed adversaries, therefore, they determined to oppose men as well informed: the crafty companions of *Ignatius* were appointed to satisfy the universal desire to acquire knowledge manifested by the age. It was here that the inconceivable talent of the new preceptors of humanity was displayed. Their leading maxim was to cultivate, and bring to the highest possible degree of perfection, every species of knowledge from which no immediate danger could arise to the system of the hierarchical power, and by that means to acquire the estimation and celebrity of being the most able and most learned men of the christian world. Assisted by this supremacy over opinion, it became easy for them either to paralyze the branches of knowlege which might bear fruit dangerous to the papacy, or to bend, direct, and graft these branches at pleasure. Thus, in inspiring a taste for the liberal sciences, the Greek and Roman classics, profane history, mathematics, they could conveniently stifle that of inquiring into matters of religion and state, the philosophical and investigating spirit. The philosophy taught in their schools was calculated to make this science repulsive and disgusting. It was no other than the scholastic, revised and corrected by them, and applied to circumstances, particularly to the polemical controversy with the reformists, whose arguments, as may readily be supposed, were brought forward in them so as to be destroyed by the artillery of the school. With respect to religion, the study of it was confined to the books of theology composed purposely by members of the society, to Jesuit casuists and moralists. The study of the original books of religion was withdrawn: or if the gospels and other pieces appeared sometimes in their works of devotion (and this was very necessary, since the translations, made by the reformed, were public,) it was with interpretations and even alterations conformable to the principal object of the society. Their grand rallying word was the *utility* of the sciences, and the *lustre* of the belles lettres. As to every thing relating to a moral amelioration or to the ennobling of mankind, as well as every thing connected with the philosophical and theological sciences, the Jesuits strove eagerly, and in fact succeeded in making them be totally forgotten; in rendering theology and philosophy barbarous and full of difficulties, and even ridiculous, in the eyes of the bulk of mankind. Who can determine how much this Jesuitic mode of instruction, which became the reigning mode in the Catholic countries, and which differs so widely from the mode of instruction

struction of the Protestants; how much, I say, this procedure, obstinately followed during several successive generations, might have influenced the species of culture and particular turn of mind among the Catholics, so different, in general, from what is seen among the Protestants?

'It, however, results from all this (and I believe this consideration is the key to the contradictory judgments formed on the method of the Jesuits, in the culture of the sciences,) that this society has rendered immense services to certain parts of literature, on which it has thrown light: but that, on the other hand, it has purposely kept certain other important parts in obscurity: or, it has so scattered the avenues with difficulties, that men were not tempted to engage in them; so that, taken in general, the instruction given in their schools, very brilliant on the one side, remained very dark on the other, was a partial and incomplete instruction, and put the mind in a wrong track; for, as on the one side, all was clear and bright, and, on the other, all was dark and mysterious, the eye naturally turned to that side which alone was luminous, and disdained to rest on the other, of which they were even habituated not to suspect the existence.

'To model science according to the interests of the pontifical power, and even to render it ignorant where it was requisite it should be ignorant; to produce certain objects in open day, and to keep others in a profound night; to fertilize the reign of the memory and wit, by rendering that of the mind and reason barren; to form enlightened, but submissive spirits, ignorant only of that which might lessen their submission, like those valuable slaves of the great men of antiquity, who were grammarians, poets, rhetoricians, skilful dancers, and musicians, knowing every thing, but to be free: I do not dread being contradicted by any impartial man, in asserting that such were the tactics of instruction adopted by the Jesuits. They were profound and supremely calculated for their object. They could form illustrious and polished writers, learned men, orators, good Roman Catholics, nay, Jesuits, but not men, in the extensive acceptation of the term: whoever became a man under their regulations, became so, independent of these regulations, and, I shall add, almost in despite of them.'

The author ingeniously refutes the paradox which represents the reformation as rather obstructing than aiding the progress of the human mind. If, in this great question between catholicism and protestantism, he in any degree errs, it is on the side of being too complimentary to the latter; since he extols too indiscriminately the state of the human mind, and the condition of society, in the communities which have abjured their allegiance to the Roman church. The situation of the Lutheran states, when contrasted with those in which rigid catholicism prevails, (such as Spain and the Imperial dominions,) doubtless appears to great advantage: but still learning is not cultivated in them, nor liberty enjoyed, in any degree equal to that which they display in the countries of the reformed communion,

and in England; nor is this latter country intitled, as is stated by M. Villers, to the praise of uniformly bestowing its numerous rich ecclesiastical preferments as the rewards of learning and merit.

Having adverted to the more striking excellencies, and noticed the slighter defects, of this valuable performance, we now take our leave, thankful for the gratification which we have derived from it in the honest discharge of our duty. We cannot undertake to divine what can only be certainly known to the author himself; whether he be a christian or not, we therefore will not determine; it is sufficient for us that he treats our religion not only with decency, but with reverence and respect. It is true that he writes more in the manner of a philosopher and a statesman than in that of a divine: but probably he might be of opinion that the nature of his investigation prescribed to him such a course. However this may be, the inquiry, which he here pursues, displays enlarged views of the affairs of modern Europe, and of the progress of the human mind. All, as it bears on his great object, is fairly related; and nothing is made to bend to system. It is a cool and dispassionate survey of a most important subject; a discussion conducted in the true spirit of philosophy, which presents equal claims to the attention of public characters and intelligent private men. The author appears to possess a mind habituated to observe, examine, and reflect; which is strongly impressed with the value of knowlege, liberty, and virtue, and which is anxious to promote their cultivation and influence.

In this article, we have followed the translation of Mr. Lambert, as having been taken from a later edition of the original. To counterbalance this advantage, the performance of Mr. Mill is enriched with valuable notes; some of which are very appositely introduced from our best authors, while others bespeak the inquisitive and enlightened mind of that gentleman himself. The original never having reached us, we can form no judgment respecting its style: but, if it can boast of either elegance or felicity, these delicate qualities must have been dissipated under the process of translation; for in neither of the versions is a trace of them discoverable. Their conformity, however, induces a belief that the sense of the author is in neither materially altered or obscured.

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ART. XIII. *The Wiccamical Chaplet*, a Selection of original Poetry; comprising smaller Poems, serious and comic; classical Trifles; Sonnets; Inscriptions and Epitaphs; Songs and Ballads; Mock-Heroics, Epigrams, Fragments, &c. &c. Edited by George Huddesford. Crown 8vo. pp. 223. 6s. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby.

FLOWERS collected from almost every parterre of the poetical garden are entwined in this chaplet; which is intitled *Wiccamical*, because the contributors were educated at Winchester school, which was founded by William of Wickham. The editor has not marked the different poems by any initials, nor distinguished *his* 'trifles', as he modestly terms his own pieces, from those of his friends. Being, however, not unacquainted with Mr. Huddesford's facetious and entertaining Muse, the style and character of many of the poems induce us to attribute them to him, and to consider him as having furnished a much larger portion of the whole than could be inferred from his own acknowlegement. From such a miscellaneous mass, it is impossible to quote any one piece which can be a fair specimen of the rest: but, as far as Mr. Huddesford is concerned, we may characterize him as a legitimate descendant of Nat. Prior. His Muse is often careless: but his thoughts are truly humourous when he means to be playful; and they are not less elegant when he aims to be complimentary. Prior did not better understand how to give point to an epigram, Mr. Dibdin is not more expert at a song, nor Peter Pindar at the Burlesque or Mock-Heroic. We shall copy at random from this collection, but we shall select from each of the different departments. Of the translations, we take the following; not because it is the best, but because it is one of the shortest:

'ANACREONTIC,

'FROM JULIANUS ÆGYPTIUS.

'Στεφος πλεκων ποθ' ευρον
Εν τοις ροδοις Ερωτα
Και των πτερων κατασχων
Εβαπτισ' εις τον οινον.
Λαβων δ' επιον αυτον.
Και νυν εσω μενων μου
Πτεροισι γαργαλιζει.

LUBIN. 1004.

'TRANSLATION.

'As a garland once I wove,
I found, amid the roses, Love:

Fast

Fast by the wings the rogue I caught,
And drench'd him in a copious draught.
Heedless wretch! I took the cup,
And drank it to the bottom *up.*
Still I feel his tingling dart
Still he flutters at my heart.'

The Anacreontic at p. 68. has some merit: but the line

'What happy hour will then *be by*'

sadly disgraces it.

In Sonnet 4, on the Author's Birth Day, not that of Mr. Huddesford certainly, we meet with a line which ought not to have been written by a Winchester boy:

'Can I this rising day salute like *they*.'

The spirit of the 10th Sonnet recompences us for the bad grammar of the 4th:

'TO AN OAK

'*Blown down by the wind.*

'Thou who, unmov'd, hast heard the whirlwind chide
Full many a winter round thy craggy bed;
And, like an earth-born giant, hast outspread
Thy hundred arms and heaven's own bolts defied,
Now liest along thy native mountain's side
Uptorn;—yet deem not that I come to shed
The idle drops of pity o'er thy head,
Or basely to insult thy blasted pride:—
No—still 'tis thine, tho' fall'n, imperial Oak!
To teach this lesson to the wise and brave,
That 'tis much better, overthrown and broke
In freedom's cause, to sink into the grave,
Than, in submission to a tyrant's yoke,
Like the vile reed, to bow and be a slave.'

The turn and the style of the *Prioric* epigram are very visible in this:

'EPITAPH

'On a late LIBERAL and LEARNED
LIMB OF THE LAW.

'There's a Proverb we've all of us heard of and read,
"Say nothing but that which is good of the dead:"
Since John H———y's gone, keep this proverb in view,
And be sure you say nothing of John that is true.'

Warton's humorous epitaph on the Oxford Pye-woman was probably in the author's thoughts when he wrote the Inscription on Elizabeth Pidgeon: but Dr. Johnson, who objected

to wit displayed over the grave as being out of place, would have demurred to both,—and to the latter for taking too great a liberty with sacred scripture, by calling her tomb '*the Pidgeon-house* " not made with hands." The pun is not exhausted till the last line,

' Rest, gentle Pidgeon, in this Pidgeon hole.'

We turn to the following Song; which, if our readers admire it as much as we do, they will thank us for transcribing:

' SONG.

' MUTUAL LOVE.

' When on thy bosom I recline,
Enraptur'd still to call thee mine,
To call thee mine for life;
I glory in the sacred ties,
Which modern wits and fools despise,
Of Husband and of Wife.

' One mutual flame inspires our bliss:—
The tender look, the melting kiss
Ev'n years have not destroy'd;
Some sweet sensation ever new
Springs up, and proves the maxim true,
That Love can ne'er be cloy'd.

' Have I a wish? 'tis all for thee;
Hast thou a wish? 'tis all for me:
So soft our moments move,
That angels look with ardent gaze,
Well pleas'd to see our happy days,
And bid us live—and love.

' If cares arise (and cares will come),
Thy bosom is my softest home,
I lull me there to rest;
And is there ought disturbs my Fair?
I bid her sigh out all her care,
And lose it on my breast.'

The Cricket-Song for the Hambledon Club, Hants, 1767, will be perused with glee by those who are partial to this diversion: but it is too long for us, and not quite so humourous as the drinking song which immediately succeeds it, called

' A BALLAD OF SIMILES*.

' If Life, like a Bubble, evaporates fast,
You must take off your wine, if you wish it to last;

* The *singing reader* will not forget the old *Song of Similes.*

For

For a Bubble may soon be destroy'd with a puff,
If it is not kept floating in liquor enough.

'If Life's like a Flow'r, as grave moralists say,
'Tis a very good thing, understood the right way,
For, if Life is a Flow'r, ev'ry blockhead can tell,
If you'd have it look fresh, you must water it well.

'That Life is a Journey no mortal disputes,
Then we'll liquor our brains, boys, instead of our boots,
And each toper shall own, on Life's road as he reels,
That a spur in the head is worth two on the heels.

'If Life's like a Lamp, then, to make it shine brighter,
We'll assign to Madeira the post of Lamp-lighter,
We'll cherish the flame with Oporto so stout,
And drink Brandy-punch till we're fairly burnt out.

'The World to a Theatre liken'd has been,
Where each one around bears his part in the scene;
If 'tis ours to be tipsey, 'tis matter of fact
That the more you all drink, boys, the better you'll act.

'Life fleets like a Dream, like a vision appears,
Some laugh in their slumbers and others shed tears;
But of us, when we wake from our Dream, 'twill be said,
That the tears of the Tankard were all that we shed.'

From a class of poems in which the genius of the editor shines with much advantage, we take a

'SAMPLE

'*Of the* SUBLIME, LUMINOUS, *and* PROFOUND, *in* MODERN POETRY.

'How I rejoic'd when the Sclavonian Bat
Popt from the Zenith in a slip-shod hat!
Then, while athwart my steed the ostler's haste
A Yorkshire pudding for a saddle plac'd,
On my pacific pair of boots I drew
That in the twilight of Gambadoes grew;
And ere yon squint-ey'd planet gave the hint
To pickle pancakes in Geneva print,
Or ere Tantides would his task forego
To crop rheumatic Sprouts* from Nestor's toe,
A Roman Coach drove o'er my logic nose,
And green Iniquity grew ripe in prose.—
'Twas then from Hypochondres' concave bounds
Up flew this whirlwind of prophetic sounds:
"When Polyphemus shall a semptress turn,

'* Rheumatic Sprouts, alias "corns."—Tantides, a Grecian Empiric and Corn-cutter in ordinary to the King of Pylos, whom Homer forgot to celebrate.'

And

And icicles like lighted flambeaux burn;
When Broad Saint Giles's shall ascend the sky,
And Grosv'nor square be fill'd with apple-pye;
When South-America shakes hands with Greece,
When Castles in the Air are let on lease;
When glow-worms' tails shall fire old Ocean's floods,
When Rhadamanthus steeps his wig in suds;
When Sir John Lade shall guide Apollo's Car,
And Hamlet's Ghost get drunk with Doctor ——;
When with red herrings teems the Grand Canal,
When Neptune drives a gig along Pall-Mall,
When the Sun's orb wants lustre, when the sky
Wants stars, and Eldon wants Integrity;
'Mongst the budge * doctors of her rev'rend fold
When wond'ring Lambeth sees Tom Paine enroll'd;
When Billington shall warble heathen Greek,
When Sheridan grows dull, and H———y meek;
When pickled sturgeon from the stars shall drop,
When Bonaparte keeps a chandler's shop;
When Beaver broad humility denotes,
When physic finds its way down Doctors' throats;
When Epic Bays emblazon B——'s scull,
When Mother Shipton shaves the Great Mogul;
When Howard grows enamour'd of small-beer,
And when Jack Ketch is made an Irish Peer;
When sucking pigs shall sing in every grove,
And Oysters fatten in a Rumford Stove;
When Farthing Candles are for Toothpicks sold,
And Gingerbread is worth its weight in Gold—
Men shall be honest, Women hold their peace,
Sin shut up shop, and Cuckold-making cease."

The Wiccamical effusions manifest great sportiveness of genius, and no inconsiderable portion of that "broad grin," which in the present age is preferred to merely elegant poetry.

'* BUDGE, surly, stiff, formal. SAM JOHNSON.
BUDGE is Fur, antiently an ornament of the Scholastic habit. TOM WARTON.
For budge doctors, read fudge doctors. JOE RITSON.
O fie! Joseph!'

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1806.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 14. *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of the late Rev. and learned Hugh Farmer:* to which is added, *a Piece of his*, never before published, printed from the only remaining Manuscript of the Author. Also several original Letters, and an Extract from his Essay on the Case of Balaam, taken from his Manuscript, since destroyed. By the late Michael Dodson, Esq. 8vo. pp. 160. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1805.

AUTHORS and Editors will avail themselves of the point conveyed in the old proverb, "Many a little will make a mickle;" and when the prominent part of a publication wants bulk, they contrive to increase its tangibility by a variety of supplementary matter. It has been deemed necessary to resort to this expedient in the present instance; yet, though it may be alleged that all the addenda have a reference to the subject of the memoir, we think that they all might have been spared. Even the extract from the Essay on the Case of Balaam, of which we have heard so much, is very unimportant, since it reaches not the difficulty with which this part of the Scriptures is embarrassed. The letters were scarcely worth publishing; and the same may be said of the Remarks on Mr. Fell, which cannot now excite the smallest interest.

As to the memoir itself, it is a neat composition, containing an excellent delineation of Mr. Farmer; who was a learned and popular preacher among the Protestant Dissenters, and who was well intitled to the notice which he has here obtained. His biographer laments that few incidents occur to vary the detail: but he has managed the narrative with skill, and displayed his friend's qualities with much accuracy and impartiality. Ample praise is bestowed on Mr. Farmer's profound learning, captivating eloquence, soul elevating devotion, and elegant conversation: but, at the same time, the weak parts of his character are not concealed from us; and we pity in him that reserve, or want of openness and fortitude, in the avowal of his opinions, which ill became a minister of the truth. Habituated to deep reading and reflection, Mr. Farmer's sentiments could not have been of the vulgar stamp. On subjects not connected with doctrinal points, he diverged from the common road; and it is fair to suppose that, had he taken the mask from his mind, it would have appeared less imbued with orthodoxy than he had courage to avow. This disguise is attributed to his aversion to theological controversy: but the instance which is mentioned, in connection with the remark, shews that he was not governed merely by this motive.

The events in Mr. Farmer's life were few. He was born at a place called "The Isle Gate," belonging to a small hamlet almost surrounded by the river Severn, a few miles from Shrewsbury, in the year 1714, was educated for the ministry under Dr. Doddridge at Northampton, was first an assistant to the Rev. Mr. David Some at Market

Market Harborough; removed thence to Walthamstow, to be chaplain in the family of Wm. Coward, Esq; and afterward, in consequence of that gentleman's oddities, to the house of Wm. Snell, Esq; in whose family he resided above thirty years. At Walthamstow, Mr. F. raised a congregation, which was composed of the most opulent Dissenters; he was chosen afternoon preacher at Salter's Hall, London; officiated there with much reputation and success; retired from his public labours in the full exercise of his mental faculties, and with undeclining popularity; and died on the 5th of Feb. 1787, of the gout in his stomach.

It is matter of serious concern that Mr. Farmer ordered all his MSS. to be destroyed: but we cannot blame his executors, who, prompted by a due sense of honour, rigidly carried the will of the deceased into execution.

Mo-y.

NOVELS.

Art. 15. *A Winter in London;* or Sketches of Fashion. By T. S. Surr. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips.

Novelty is no longer to be expected in a novel; and in no instance perhaps is the observation of Solomon, that "there is nothing new under the sun," more fully verified than in the composition of this species of writing. Mr. Surr has endeavoured, we suppose, to exhibit something new by catching "the manners living as they rise," and pourtraying some of our leading characters of fashion: here, however, the novelty extends not far; it is displayed chiefly in the variations of frivolous amusements and foppish manners: but morality and immorality are still the same. Two celebrated Duchesses of *haut ton* are here presented to view, under assumed designations; the one noted for *good cheer* and dexterity in arranging family alliances, the other for her unfortunate devotion to the goddess of *Chance*, and both for their rivalry in splendid *fêtes* and entertainments. Some distinguished characters are also exhibited in *propriis personis*, for the purposes of eulogy. The hero's story reminds us very strongly of Miss Burney's *Evelina*, with a spice of the *Fool of Quality;* and an Italian courtezan and monk, of the true murderous disposition, also make their appearance. Will the Italians ever *revenge*, or ever *redeem*, the stigma which our writers almost constantly throw on them, when an individual of that nation has a part to act in the drama?—"Last, though not least," *Reviewers* form a groupe in this assemblage, and some modern professors of the critical art are treated with much asperity; while the *M. R.* is hailed in a *rough* style of old friendship.

The work possesses interest, manifests some talents, and offers exhortations and incitements to virtuous conduct.

G.2.

Art. 16. *The Nobility of the Heart.* By Elizabeth Isabella Spence. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Nobility in adversity is here made to display the *Nobility of the Heart.* An Earl's daughter, thrown into concealment, and deprived of her inheritance, experiences the sorrows of dependence, but at length emerges into her proper sphere. The scheme, the incidents, and the characters,

characters, are all as old as virtue and vice; and the composition is far from being polished: but the tale may amuse, and the inferences from it ought to instruct. C.R. 2.

Art. 17. *Ferdinand and Amelia.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. Crosby and Co.

Here again we have nobility in masquerade, and finally shining in its own colours. The usual personages and occurrences are contemplated; the literary merit of the writer is about the ordinary standard; and the lesson taught is of the old stamp, told over and over again. *Decies repetita,*—PLACEAT. D.o

Art. 18. *Can we doubt it?* or the genuine History of two Families of Norwich. By Charlotte Bournon-Malarme, Member of the Academy of Arcades (Arcadian Academy) of Rome. Translated from the French by Mrs. Villa-Real Gooch. 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. Crosby and Co.

Say rather, "Can we *believe* it?" We confess that we cannot.—Madame Bournon-Malarme asserts that this tale is a narrative of facts, with only disguised names, communicated by the son of one of the parties to her when on a visit to Bath, twelve years since. The highest improbability, in our opinion, and in some parts *impossiblity*, mark this revolting narrative of atrocities: which, as an error *in limine*, are ascribed to the most inadequate motives. Had such events really occurred, we conceive that the Bow-street gentlemen would have contrived a *denouement* much sooner than this writer has effected it. D.o

POLITICS.

Art. 19. *Thoughts on the relative State of Great Britain and France*, at the Close of Mr. Pitt's Life and Administration, in 1806. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard.

"Knowlege", says Lord Bacon, "is power", and this position is eminently true in a political sense. It has been too much the practice of those who directed our public affairs, to consult their wishes instead of their reason; to despise, rather than to calculate the strength of the enemy; and to suffer passion to obliterate the dictates of sound policy. Are we to persevere in such a system of imbecillity and delusion? A better prospect seems opening before us; and we may presume that on the new administration the clear and extensive views, the judicious observations, and the sound advice, given by this writer at the present critical moment, will not be lost. The state of Great Britain and France is nicely weighed in the political scale; the power and preponderance of Bonaparte on the continent are fully displayed; his ability as a statesman as well as a warrior is acknowleged; and his assumption of the Imperial dignity is considered more as an act of wisdom than of vanity. Though the author reprobates the pusillanimity of the Emperor Francis in making peace, he does not conceal the situation in which Europe is placed by that event; admitting that the power, dominions, and means belonging to Bonaparte are thus rendered superior to those which have been enjoyed by any sovereign in Europe since the fall of the Western Empire.

All

'All the barriers constructed and maintained with so much blood and treasure in Flanders, Dutch Brabant, and on the German frontier, are swept away. Piedmont and Savoy are swallowed up in the French territory: Flanders, long since incorporated with that immense monarchy, has even lost its name. The Rhine is as completely French, from its source to its mouth, as the Garonne or the Seine. To the ports of Belgium are added those of Italy. Ostend, Genoa, Nice, the isle of Elba, the gulph of La Spezzia, the Mouths of the Po, the city of Venice, and all the harbours of that extinct Republic, own the same common ruler.'

By the new conquests and acquisitions of the French in the Adriatic, the importance of Malta as a post of war is much diminished, since it has no longer the command of the Levant; nor can it prevent Bonaparte's enterprizes on Egypt, if he chooses to renew them. As Malta, therefore, the writer thinks, is not now worth the contest, even supposing that the possession of Egypt were of more serious consequence to us than it is ever likely to be, and as there is no prospect of our diminishing the enemy's overgrown power, it is advised that he should be conciliated; and that measures should be adopted towards the establishment of a peace.

On Mr. Pitt as a financier, an eloquent speaker, a manager of the House of Commons, and a man of a firm and disinterested mind, ample encomium is passed: but the author will not admit that he was "an excellent statesman." Under the existent circumstances of England and France, which render peace desirable, he is even of opinion that the decease of the late minister was a propitious event.

While advice is given for the purpose of instituting pacific measures, the defence of the country against the enemy is not passed over in silence. Plans both financial and military are proposed; and it is particularly recommended to Government to raise a disciplined *Posse Comitatus* of 700,000 men, to make a harbour at Dover for frigates and smaller ships of war, to fortify the whole of our coast that is nearest to that of the enemy, and to keep his flotilla in check by a flotilla of our own. 'I hope,' says this writer, 'that I shall not be told of the expence which such a work would occasion. What! when we can vote so many millions to bring Russians into Moravia, or to enable Austria to embody her forces; should we think it much to lay out one or even two millions at Dover, where Bonaparte may effect a landing before next July?' If peace be an object of the new administration, it is strongly urged by the author of these thoughts that it should be attempted in the spirit of peace and conciliation. It is recommended to both nations to calm the violence of mutual antipathies, and reciprocally to draw the veil of oblivion over the past. If it be our wish to bring Bonaparte into pacific plans, we must cease to inflame him with abuse; we must abandon the cause of the Bourbons as desperate, acknowlege him as Emperor of the French, and no longer continue to treat him as an upstart, plunderer, and usurper.

This writer does not advert to the establishment of commercial arrangements with France, by which, if judiciously made, both countries would be benefited; he is, however, persauded that, should

the new administration combine a pacific disposition with a proper energy, 'a few months will probably produce a secure, an honourable, and a permanent peace.' Moy.

Art. 20. *A Letter occasioned by the Death of the Right Honourable William Pitt.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Most completely has this writer *taken us in.* Instead of politics, we have methodism. Mr. P. is considered as looking from his embodied state on the present world; and a sermon, unlike any speech which he ever delivered in parliament, is put into his mouth. 'How enlarged', we are told, 'must now be his perceptions on the means of man's reconciliation with his God!'—The pamphlet concludes, 'May the grace of God direct and prosper Mr. Pitt's successors.' We say, Amen. Do

Art. 21. *The Mysteries of Neutralization;* or the British Navy vindicated from the Charges of Injustice and Oppression towards Neutral Flags. By John Brown, of Great Yarmouth. 8vo. pp. 156. 4s. Jordan and Co. 1806

This work will serve as a supplement to the able pamphlet intitled *War in Disguise*, which we announced in our Number for December last. It prefers the same complaints, seeks similar redress, and also fortifies its statements by particular facts, of which an ample collection is adduced. Little is here said respecting the law itself, the author having been chiefly employed in collecting together the instances of its violation, and in developing the arts and contrivances by which the pretended neutrals impose on our Admiralty courts.

Mr. Brown remarks that 'it is not possible to state with precision the number of vessels which *really belong* to the inhabitants of East Friesland. It is, however, well known that they do not exceed one hundred vessels of one hundred tons burthen each and upwards. The lowest general computation of the number of vessels bearing the Prussian flag, but being the property of subjects of belligerent powers, is *two thousand* and the highest *three thousand* sail! Could a fair balance be struck of the relative advantages arising from neutralization to the different belligerent interests, and the total be divided into a *hundred shares*, not *more* than *one* would be found to rest with England, nor *less* than *ninety nine* with our enemies!'

The documents necessary for the purposes of fraud are manufactured at different places in the north of Europe, and form a notorious marketable article. The author asserts that, to detect these newly introduced contrivances and impostures, the proceedings in our prize courts are wholly inadequate; and that the neutralizers are fully acquainted with their defects, and avail themselves of them. He informs us that

'Most of the *Dutch* and *French* ship-owners are *skilful proctors.* They know how to appreciate the immense advantages secured to them by our STANDING INTERROGATORIES, and can calculate to a fraction the chance they have of success—seldom dubious if their *Master-Mariners will but swear!* Thence, at the present hour, the question IS NOT, *is the master a sober religious man, and a* SKILFUL MARINER? but, "IS HE UP TO A THING OR TWO? WILL HE SWEAR?" If he be willing,

willing, but has not been initiated in all the MYSTERIES *of* NEUTRALIZATION, he is put in training, and taught to rehearse our STANDING INTERROGATORIES, till he knows every question by rote, and has every answer ready to meet every question put to him. In this manner the masters, mates, &c. *are drilled and disciplined in the exercise of* PERJURY, so that when a real examination takes place at our outports, without one faltering accent, one blush upon their cheeks, THEY DELIBERATELY FORSWEAR THEMSELVES at every sentence, and so *utterly incompetent* are *the existing rules* of our High Court of Admiralty to meet *the existing evil*, that with the most complete conviction that the claims of the *asserted neutral* are unjust, the court frequently finds itself obliged to restore, and sometimes *with costs and damages against the captor! ! !*'

Our situation with regard to neutrals appears to be highly prejudicial on many grounds, and adds very considerably to the sum of the difficulties which press on us at this awful moment. In this instance, as in our foreign relations in general, we own that we can discover little of that excellent statesmanship of which we have lately heard so much.

We need scarcely add that this pamphlet is very interesting in a political light, and particularly for its *facts* and *documents*. *Jo.*

ART. 22. *An Essay on the Impolicy of a Bounty on the Exportation of Grain*; and on the Principles which ought to regulate the Commerce of Grain, divided under the following Heads; Of the History of the Corn Laws; Influence of the Population on the Corn-Trade; Effects of the Bounty on the Rent of Lands; Effects of the Bounty on the Profits of the Farmer; Effects of the Bounty on the Value of Silver; Exportation; Importation; Landlords, Farmers and Corn Dealers. 8vo. 2s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

The subjects here specified are distinctly discussed in eight chapters, and the arguments of the writer are intitled to much attention. We cannot allot to them the space requisite for detailing them at length, but we shall endeavour to state their substance. In tracing the history of the Corn Laws, it is shewn that the Bounty, originally given on Exportation, had no more effect in promoting the growth of corn than the institution of the National Debt; for it is well known that Agriculture, instead of declining, has advanced since the suspension of the bounty. Those effects, it is observed, which have been attributed by the advocates for a bounty to this suspension, have arisen from the start which Commerce has acquired of Agriculture, and from an increase of population and luxury. It is maintained that an urgent demand is always provided at home for the greatest possible increase of the fruits of the earth, and that an ample market will afford full encouragement to the farmer, without the assistance of a bounty on exportation; the sole operation of which measure would not be to enrich the farmer, but to put money into the pockets of the proprietors of land. Since, however, the value of silver and of all the necessaries of life must be raised by this bounty, the landlord will not eventually be more benefited by it than the farmer, while its natural tendency must be to discourage every species of industry. On these

grounds, the author hopes that the new corn-law will speedily be repealed.

The errors which have been entertained on this subject are attributed to the contemplation of a single particular, without embracing general views. To advance Agriculture, the government is advised to render the commerce of land as free and easy as that of all things else; to relieve agriculture from vexatious imposts; to encourage the employment of large capitals in it; and to leave the price of corn to find its natural level in the market. The vulgar prejudices against farmers and corn-dealers, in times of scarcity and dearness, are very sensibly combated. Indeed, the whole of this pamphlet evinces that the writer is well acquainted with the soundest principles of political economy.

Moy.

ART. 23. *Observations upon some late Proceedings in Parliament, touching certain rumoured Delinquents in the Office of Treasurer of his Majesty's Navy*, in a Letter to a Friend. Published by Permission of the Author. 8vo. 1s. Chapple. 1805.

This observer is of opinion that the persons accused of malversation, in the office of the Treasurer of the Navy, have been treated with a severity which is inconsistent with the mild spirit of the English laws; and he insists much on the importance of those rights with which our jurisprudence cloaths defendants in criminal prosecutions, a point which nobody will be found to controvert. If, however, this must be readily admitted on the one hand, it can hardly be denied on the other that the detection of misconduct in high public situations, and the conviction of the parties, are also objects of very serious moment. The writer arraigns the powers created by the act appointing naval commissioners, and complains of the hardship under which the individuals have been put to whose cases they have been applied. Whether the censure be well or ill founded, we have no means of judging; since the author does not cite a single clause of the statute which he seems to think infringes on the rights of British subjects. He ought, we conceive, to have specified those provisions of the act against which his objections are directed; and to have stated those interrogatories, which he supposes it to be unfit to administer. As matters now stand, we are here required to sympathize with the oppressed, without having a single proof adduced that any oppression has been practised. It certainly is not a very modest request to solicit that we should *presume* that the accused are chargeable with no delinquency, and that the whole measure is owing to the intemperate and harsh proceedings of the House of Commons.

As far as the tracts lately published on this subject tend to render the public mind dispassionate on the question, we wish them all possible success. The charges are most serious, and they will be powerfully urged: but we have no doubt that the tribunal, before which they have been preferred, will decide impartially between the country and the individuals.

Jo.

ART. 24. *A Letter addressed to the Right Honorable Lord Henry Petty*, wherein the general Tendency of the Principles of his great Predecessor's financial Administration are freely and plainly examined;

mined; evincing their baneful and ruinous Effects upon the Public Spirit of the People, and pointing out the Injustice, the Impolicy, and even the Danger of continuing to allow these Principles to influence the financial Measures of the Government. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan and Co.

When new ministers come into office, by the death or removal of their predecessors, many politicians are ready to volunteer advice, and to assist them with plans for their future conduct. Lord H. Petty, being "young in deeds," may be thought to require friendly counsel to aid him in the discharge of the duties of his elevated situation, and so far the writer of this prompt address may regard his admonitions as requiring no apology. Some of his strictures on the financial system of Mr. Pitt are indeed deserving of consideration: but he is too declamatory, and we question the soundness and practicability of those measures which he wishes to be adopted. The equity, however, of his fundamental principle of taxation we do not dispute; nor do we controvert his assertion respecting the late ministry, that 'they have been strong against the weak, and not strong against the strong:' but, though it is as impolitic as it is unjust to put the man of mere income on a par with the possessor of real property, it may be impracticable to make all *moveables*, (viz. all furniture, and pictures, which have a nominal value, and are unproductive,) subjects of taxation; for a picture which may be valued at a thousand guineas does not yield one farthing to the proprietor, and cannot be compared to a house or field of the same price. It is the opinion of this writer that, if the taxes are modified, and arms are put into the hands of the peasantry, we may laugh to scorn the power of France. Mr. Pitt is asserted to have *once* saved the empire; and to Mr. Fox this writer does not seem to be partial, though he allows him 'to be English, soul and body.' The scheme for the extinction of the national debt by the sinking fund, which, it is observed, no more owes its origin to Mr. Pitt than to the Cham of Tartary, is pronounced 'to benefit the state at the expence of the individual.' In short, Lord Henry is advised *to turn over a new leaf*; and to dismiss the narrow politics of the desk, the counting house, and the Stock Exchange, for those which embrace the interests of the country at large.

May.

MEDICAL.

ART. 25. *An Account of two Cases of Gout*, which terminated in Death, in consequence of the external Use of Ice and Cold Water. By E. Edlin. 12mo. 1s. Harris.

The novelty and boldness of Dr. Kinglake's practice in gout *, and the unqualified manner in which it is recommended, must be expected to produce a crowd of opponents: but the present performance cannot be considered as a very formidable attack, since it principally consists of an account of only one case, in which the application of cold appeared to be succeeded by fatal effects. The subject was himself a respectable practitioner at Uxbridge, who, being a

* See p. 123. of this Review.

convert to Dr. Kinglake's opinion, resolved, when an opportunity occurred, to try the experiment on his own person. He was attacked with the usual symptoms of gouty inflammation in the feet, unattended with any constitutional complaints; to which, after it had subsisted for three days, he freely applied, first cold air, then cold water, and afterward water still farther reduced in temperature by the addition of ice. At this period, he was visited by Mr. Edlin, who endeavoured to dissuade him from a practice which he considered as extremely dangerous: but the patient persevered, and the consequence was that the pain was quickly relieved, and he deemed himself perfectly cured. In a few hours, however, he had a violent attack of that kind which is usually regarded as depending on a repulsion of the gouty inflammation,—difficulty of breathing, cold extremities, quick, fluttering, intermitting pulse, vomitting, and torpor of the stomach. Strong stimulants and antispasmodics in some degree relieved these symptoms, but they returned, and proved fatal.—We see no reason for doubting the truth of the narration, and it seems evident that the case was what is commonly called *repelled gout*. Neither have we any hesitation in ascribing the death of the patient to the cold applications. At the same time, since the result of one case should not weigh too powerfully against a practice which may appear founded on rational principles, we cannot suppose that those who have been led to adopt the sentiments of Dr. Kinglake will conceive that their cause is much shaken by this pamphlet.

Besides the above case, as the title imports, a second is related, which also terminated unfavourably, in consequence of a similar kind of treatment: but, as it did not fall under Mr. Edlin's immediate notice, and is related on not very direct evidence, we cannot attach much importance to it. **Bos.**

ART. 26. *A Reply to Mr. Edlin's two Cases of Gout*, &c. By R. Kinglake, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray.

Dr. Kinglake's ardor was not calculated to permit Mr. Edlin's pamphlet to remain unanswered. He takes up his pen rather inspirited than dismayed by the opposition which he has experienced; and if he be deficient in argument, he certainly possesses a superabundant quantity of zeal. He complains that his antagonist deals in personal invective, a charge of which we cannot altogether acquit him: but this is a figure of speech with which Dr. Kinglake himself very profusely adorns his pages.

In the first place, Dr. K. contends that Mr. Edlin should have given an account of the patient's constitution and previous state of health; in order that we might have been enabled to form a more correct judgment of the propriety of the treatment adopted. This we allow to be a fair objection against Mr. Edlin's pamphlet. Dr. K. seems to agree that the disease was gout, and in course approves of the refrigerant plan of treatment. In order, however, to account for the constitutional affections, he insinuates that they were in part brought on by the terror and agitation into which Mr. Edlin's visit had thrown the patient; and that the description of them is probably much exaggerated. The stimulant plan, which was adopted, he con-

siders as rather tending to aggravate than to remove the complaints; he thinks that cooling drinks would have been more appropriate remedies; and to the perseverance in the use of stimulants he ascribes the fatal event which ensued. Our readers will observe that Dr. Kinglake has not adduced any new facts respecting the case, but only attempts to reason differently respecting those which are stated by Mr. Edlin.

In the course of the pamphlet, the author launches out into a severe philippic against Dr. Blegborough, who unfortunately is not convinced of the propriety of the new practice; and Dr. Haworth, who visited the case in question during its latter stages, is also mentioned in that contemptuous manner which we have before had occasion to condemn in the author, and which cannot be too strongly reprobated. As if determined to conclude the discussion, Dr. K. denies that such a thing as *repelled gout* can exist; 'neither of them,' (Dr. Haworth and Mr. Edlin) 'with all their *flippancy* of decision, ever saw a case of repelled gout.' In order to prove that the author maintains his doctrines in theiroriginal purity, we shall conclude this article with quoting a paragraph from the present pamphlet, in which he explains the nature of those affections that have been generally referred to this head:

'The complaints usually arising in the system during protracted gout are indeed chiefly of the spasmodic kind. They proceed from the debilitating influence of long continued pain. They are of the tribe of the locked jaw, which is often induced by the exquisite torture occasioned by either sprained or wounded ligaments and tendons. An unreduced dislocation has frequently produced this afflicting disease. In this case, the inflammatory affection is on the ligaments and tendons, and, as affirmed in my dissertation on gout, is strictly identical with that disease.'

Bos.

ART. 27. *Salutary Cautions respecting the Gout:* in which the doctrines maintained by Dr. Kinglake are exposed and refuted. By John Hunt. 8vo. 3s R. Phillips.

This attack on Dr. Kinglake's new doctrines and practice contains some judicious suggestions, but is not a performance of that decided merit which the subject demands. The author devotes a considerable portion of his work to a loose kind of declamation against his antagonist, and indulges much in irony and sarcasm: but we fear that neither his eloquence nor his wit will make any impression on his opponent. Mr. Hunt observes, and certainly with justice, that there is a considerable degree of vagueness in the relation of many of Dr. Kinglake's cases, as to the nature and extent of the symptoms, the duration of the disease, and the other remedies applied at the same time with the cold water. It may be collected from circumstances which are incidentally noticed, that in many instances the symptoms existed in a trifling degree only, and were by no means of that importance which Dr. Kinglake has assigned to them. Many of them would probably have disappeared nearly in the same manner by the natural efforts of the constitution; and there is reason for apprehending that some would be rather protracted than alleviated by the use

of the cold water. Although Dr. Kinglake places his sole confidence in the use of external cold, and attributes to this alone any good effects which were produced, it appears that in reality other medicines of considerable efficacy were liberally administered. The camphorated tincture of opium and the volatile tincture of guaiacum were generally prescribed, and in large doses; in some cases, the opium was taken to the extent of three grains in twenty-four hours. Bark and other tonics are said also to have been not unfrequently ordered, although they are mentioned casually, and no part of the cure is ascribed to them. A strange inconsistency is evident in several of the cases, where the complaints seem to have been produced by the *incidental* exposure to cold, and were afterward relieved by the *designed* application of the same agent. It may also be remarked that, notwithstanding the general impression of the efficacy of his practice, which Dr. Kinglake labors to convey, it will be manifest, on a closer examination of the cases, that the benefit obtained was by no means unequivocal. In one instance, which is mentioned as strikingly exhibiting the beneficial effects of external cold, the patient was obliged to be kept, as it is said, almost naked in water, for several weeks. Lastly, we may observe that, while Dr. Kinglake was obtaining so many testimonies in favor of his plan of treating gout, an entirely opposite method, viz. the immersion of the affected limbs in the vapor-bath, was recommended with equal confidence by other practitioners; who, like Dr. Kinglake, professed to found their belief of its virtues on the basis of experience.

Bos.

DRAMATIC.

ART. 28. *To Marry or not to Marry*; a Comedy in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Mrs. Inchbald. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Probability is here sacrificed to effect, in all the incidents of the piece; and natural simplicity in a young female, bordering almost too closely on the *natural*, is made to reverse the anti-amatory decrees of a proud bachelor, with as little propriety as could be ascribed to his former heresy. Some very commendable sentiments and skilful touches occur in the drama: but the extravaganza of its plot is calculated to disgust; and it is altogether more intitled to the rank of an after piece than that of a comedy. The character of Willowear is broad farce.

G.2.

ART. 29. *Custom's Fallacy*, a Dramatic Sketch, in Three Acts, never performed. 8vo. 2s. Barker and Son.

The author of this play speaks of it with hesitation as being a first attempt: his denomination of it is modest; and his motto implies a wish to inculcate morality from the stage. His drama is calculated for this purpose; some parts of the dialogue are not without merit; and some of the characters are pourtrayed with animation. We cannot ascribe to it, however, any originality of design; and while it is not sufficiently elaborate for a comedy, it is too much lengthened and not enough ludicrous for what is called an *entertainment*.

D?

ART.

ART. 30. *The Blind Bargain*; or, Hear it Out, a Comedy in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

No frequenter of the theatre, or reader of modern plays, is unacquainted with the nature of Mr. Reynolds's dramatic productions. They are intended to create laughter, which they generally excite; and as we agree with our old friend Sancho Pança in eulogizing this wholesome convulsion, we are not inclined to criticise them with severity. Perhaps, however, it would be more advisable, certainly more defensible, to place them in the class of farces, than to attempt to elevate them to the dignity of comedies. The present composition has the same features with the author's former bantlings: the same whim and extravagance of plot, character, and incident; the same play upon words and allusions to modern manners in its dialogue: in fine, the same claims to temporary applause;—and temporary, we doubt not, it will prove.

G. 2.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 31. *Culina Famulatrix Medicinæ:* or Receipts in Modern Cookery; with a Medical Commentary, written by Ignotus, and revised by A. Hunter, M. D. F. R. S. L. & E. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Mawman.

The Spectator remarks, in one of his papers, that he is never present at a fine dinner without imagining that he sees gout, palsy, and rheumatism lurking in ambush among the dishes. The common people have the same idea, when they describe a glutton as digging his grave with his teeth. Though we cannot live without eating and drinking, it is certain that we shall live the longer and with the more comfort to ourselves, if our food be simple and the quantity moderate. Cookery, however, throws temptations in our way which few mortals have the power of withstanding; and the epicure regards a good table as one of the first of earthly blessings. Man might indeed boast of being "a cooking animal," if he did not cook himself into the grave: but rich sauces and high seasonings, the gifts of Culina, are in fact curses in disguise, however reluctant he may be to subscribe to so unpalatable a doctrine. Yet occasionally an individual may be found to listen to wholesome advice; and to him the hints of *Ignotus* and Ignotus's second self will be acceptable. This writer's first object is to induce us to treat the stomach with tenderness, for which purpose he explains the delicacy of its internal structure:

'The stomach is the prime organ of the human system, on the state of which all the powers and feelings of the individual depend. It is the kitchen that prepares our discordant food, and which, after due maceration, it delivers over, by a certain undulatory motion, to the intestines, where it receives a further concoction. Being now reduced into a white balmy fluid, it is sucked up by a set of small vessels, called lacteals, and carried to the thoracic duct. This duct runs up the back bone, and is in length about sixteen inches, but in diameter it hardly exceeds a crow quill. Through this small tube, the greatest part of what is taken in at the mouth passes, and when it has arrived at its greatest height, it is discharged into the left subclavian vein; when,

when, mixing with the general mass of blood, it becomes very soon blood itself.'

We do not presume to give judgment on the real merit of the receipts which constitute the bulk of this volume, but many of them appear to be excellent, and prove Ignotus to be very far from being ignorant. In his observations, he has distinguished those which are wholesome from those which tend to generate disease. After a receipt for Hare Soup, he adds; 'To speak in praise of this soup, would be an eulogium on the gout;' after one for A Meagre Soup, 'This dish is a good preservative against gout and scurvy, and is held in great estimation by those physicians who have a greater regard for the health of their patients than their fees;' after another for A Partridge Soup; 'This is one of the dishes that escaped from Pandora's box;' and after one for preparing Mock Turtle Soup, 'This is a most diabolical dish, and only fit for the Sunday dinner of a rustic who is to work the six following days in a ditch bottom. It is the very essence of Pandora's box, so,—" Get thee behind me, Satan "

Thus admonition is conveyed with wit and humour; and the instructor warns us even when he smiles, and makes us smile with him.

Females, to whom the department of the kitchen commonly belongs, will find benefit from consulting this collection; for *Ignotus* will probably tell them many things which they do not know; and if they are not spoiled by the Boarding-school, they will have pleasure in trying many of these receipts. The list concludes with a Dish named *Common Sense*, which is a very uncommon thing, especially in great families; the editor, however, ventures to recommend it as a wholesome dish to all persons who are troubled with crudities and indigestions.

Ignotus kindly reminds us that, as matters are at present conducted, the Cook is the Physician's best friend. Moy.

Art. 32. *The Trident of Albion*, an Epic Effusion; and an Oration on the Influence of Elocution on martial Enthusiasm; with an Address to the Shade of Nelson; delivered at the Lyceum, Liverpool, on Occasion of the late glorious Victory. To which is prefixed an Introductory Discourse on the Nature and Objects of Elocutionary Science. By John Thelwall, Professor of the Science and Practice of Elocution. 8vo. 2s. 6d. R. Phillips.

Though Mr. Thelwall has for several years been so entirely occupied in his professional studies, as to have 'neither taste nor inclination for political disquisitions' he is not indifferent to the blessings of national independence; nor can he survey without transport those victories by which it seems to be secured. His epic effusion has considerable merit, and it has also considerable defects. The idea with which it opens, of celebrating those heroes who, in different ages, have victoriously wielded the British Trident over the waves, is excellent, and suggests an admirable plan for a Naval Poem: but the thought is no sooner displayed that it is abandoned; for, after the mention of Raleigh, Blake, and Drake, the Muse leaps over many illustrious names in our maritime annals, eager to eulogise the triumphant

triumphant and expiring Nelson. The lines are appropriate to the subject; and if the assertion be true that by the late sea victory we have redeemed the land's disasters, it ought to be matter of heart-felt thankfulness. Mr. T. draws a picture of the oppressed state of the Continent, and then asks:

'Where Albion now—where grasping Europe—where,
But for our NELSON's providential care
And dauntless Valour—where had been your hopes?
'For, see—portentous, o'er the Nations, glares
The pestilential Scourge, and breathes around
Dismay and Subjugation. Panic struck,
The Austrian Eagle, from his powerless grasp,
Lets fall the extinguish'd Thunder. One deep groan
Thrills thro the Continent: and Britain hears.
With sympathising horror. On each brow
Sits dark Dismay, and heart-corroding Care,
And boding Apprehension.
"Shall thy fields,
Fair Queen of Isles! to the Invader's hoof
Yield its soft verdure? Shall thy bleating hills
And fertile vallies witness the fierce strife
Of doubtful Carnage? and thy beatuteous dames
Shriek in the grasp of foreign Ravishers?—
Or scape pollution only thro the blood
Of Husbands and of Brothers, in their sight
Nobly expiring?"
'While such thoughts distract,
Albion, thy Inland Sons—lo! thro the gloom,
Forth from thy darken'd Coasts, indignant flies
The Naval Thunder; and once more averts,
(O'er many a Sea loud pealing) the dread fate
Of else-devoted Europe. On thy Car
Of Sea-borne Triumph, lo! the Veteran Chief,
By *thrice twice* twenty Victories renown'd,
Controls the Waves. Iberia feels once more,
Leagued with the Gaul, that every league is vain,
When sounds thy warrior Conch; and Gaul, that own'd,
From rescu'd Nilus,—that "o'er Ocean's realm
"Thou reign'st invincible," again bewails
Her impotent presumption.
'From her fears
The rescu'd World revives;—*the Sea redeems*
The Land's disasters; and from Albion's shores
Ascends the Song of Triumph.'

In compliment to his Lancaster friends, he terms the Mersey 'foremost of Tradeful rivers:' but the Thames and Severn protest against this compliment.

Mr. T.'s language is not so correct as we should have expected from a professed orator.

'While with a voice *might* wake'

is not grammar, and the line

'On

'On ominous pinion, with blood-drooping beak',

is redundant in quantity.

The oration which precedes *The Trident of Albion* evinces Mr. T.'s knowlege of the principles of Elocution; and that which follows it manifests his actual powers as an Orator. The apostrophe to the shade of Nelson is a commendable specimen of eloquence, even more impressive than his poetic efforts:

'What grasp of mind can comprehend——what power of language can do justice, to the invincible spirit—the fertility of invention and resource, under every circumstance of difficulty and danger, displayed by this great commander?—to that rapidity of conception—that promptitude of thought, which perceived the bearings of every exigency; and devised and adopted, on the instant, the plans of attack, manœuvre and operation, which the circumstances, however unexpected, might require?—to that collected boldness and impetuous hardihood, which realised, in action, every project, which his boundless Science and fertile genius had devised?—and, above all, to that rapidity of evolution, from post to post, from sea to sea, from pole almost to pole,—which seemed, as it were, to control the very elements; and, like the motion and operations of lightning, gave an appearance of omnipresence to his resistless courage?

'Eulogy has no metaphor that can do justice to this splendid career; and panegyric itself must borrow its language from the simple pages of historical record, if it would paint, even in an individual instance, the enterprising activity of his fiery spirit; when, yet in a subordinate situation, in the conflict of doubtful battle, he seized the moment of critical conjuncture; and, attacking, with his single, smaller vessel, the well-seconded force of a superior foe, he passed, sword in hand, from his own deck, up the towering sides of his enemy; overpowered the desperate resistance of its crew; and then made the mastered vessel, a step, as it were, from which, with equal impetuosity and success, he passed to another, of still superior magnitude, and overwhelmed all opposition with a courage, which appeared to be supernatural.

'But this was only a prelude to those splendid achievements, in every part of which he displayed an equal mixture of enthusiasm and presence of mind. To him, wounds, hardships, sufferings, privations, and mutilations, presented no obstructions in the career of duty. "Victory, or Westminster Abbey!—*a glorious life, or an honourable tomb,*" seem to have been regarded, almost as equal blessings; and the loss of limbs, and the abridgement of the powers of exterior sense, appear only to have concentrated the patriotic fire that burned within, and to have increased the valour and comprehension of his soul.

'And can we remember, without emotions of gratitude, the benefits which this comprehension and this valour have conferred upon his country?—whose fate it is, perhaps, too much to say *that he has averted*—(since the danger may yet return;—and since, even in the last extremities, "come what come may," Britons may surely rely on the energies of their united valour!) but whose shores he has, at any rate, for awhile, preserved, from the impending ravages of invasion. And

can

can we,—while we taste (tho' but for a while) the renovated blessing of security, forget—that he who conferred that blessing is no more to be a participator of its enjoyments.

'Upon such a subject, grief might, assuredly, be eloquent; and the voice of lamentation might be heard in every street.

'But no—Heroic Spirit! Not such are the Tears that should embalm thy memory; not such is the mourning with which thy obsequies should be accompanied. Let effeminate sorrow melt over the pale victims of affliction and disease! Let the dirges of lamentation resound over the grave of virgin loveliness, cropped in its vernal bloom: but the Tomb of the Hero, is the Temple of his Triumph; and the Trophies, that adorn it, are the Altars on which compatriot youths should offer up their vows of emulation.

'Yes! thou heroic spirit! if, yet conscious to the transactions of this fragile world, thou hoverest, with patriotic solicitude, over the country thou hast so bravely defended——Yes, thou wilt exclaim, "By other actions acknowledge my services and estimate my loss, than by tears and lamentations! by other offerings consecrate my memory than by the dirges of desponding sorrow. Proclaim your admiration, by imitating my example; and, with pen of adamant, engrave upon your hearts the language of my last injunction. Landsmen, as well as seamen, may yet be summoned to the exertions and the sacrifices it demands. Even yet, upon your coasts, you may be called upon to repel the invader:—and, if you should,—keep then in your recollections—*what England expects of every individual*; and write your remembrances of me with your swords!"

'We hear thee, patriotic Spirit!—We receive thy awful admonitions—not into our ears, but into our hearts:—those hearts, from which we breathe, with determined unanimity, the fervent—the inviolable vow, "To assert—as thou hast asserted, even in death, the independence of our country; and to prove, under all extremities, that we are not forgetful of the injunctions, or the example, of the Heroic Martyr of Trafalgar."

Such an apostrophe, enforced by the charms of correct and animated Elocution, must have produced a powerful effect on the audience.

Moy.

LAW.

Art. 33. *An Inquiry into the Origin and Influence of the controverted Rule of Law, called the Rule in Shelley's Case.* Suggested by the late Decisions of Sweet *v.* Herring, in the King's-Bench, and Poole *v.* Poole and others, in the Common Pleas. By Jacob Phillips, of the Inner Temple, Esq. 8vo. pp. 61. 2s. 6d. Bickerstaff. 1805.

The object of this little pamphlet will be collected from the following extract;

'The Rule intended to be discussed is laid down in Shelley's case, in these words:

"It is a Rule in Law, that, when the ancestor by any gift or conveyance taketh an estate of freehold, and, in the same gift or conveyance, an estate is limited, either mediately or immediately, to his heirs

heirs in fee, or in tail, that always in such cases, (the heirs) are words of limitation of the estate and not of purchase."

'Various have been the discussions of this celebrated rule, and almost equally various the conclusions. Perhaps there is no one other point in the whole code of our law, on which there has been such a discordancy of opinion or such a combat of talent. The conclusions which have been formed on the rule may be divided into three classes.

'1. Some have considered the rule as a mere contest about words, and then proceeding on the idea, that there is no magic in words, have denied its influence.

'2. Others have admitted the existence of the rule, but considered it as subservient to the intention and as a mere rule of interpretation.

'3. Others again have deemed the rule to be inflexible and imperative, directly levelled at the intention, and uniformly paramount to and subverting it.

'We shall divide this discussion into three parts;

'1. An inquiry into the origin and principle of the rule.

'2. An inquiry into the foundation of the objections to the rule.

'3. An inquiry into the influence and authority of the rule.'

Treading in the steps of Lord Chief Baron Gilbert, Mr. Phillips deduces the grounds of the rule from the feodal system. When a tenant came into the possession of a fee in any other way than by descent, the Lord was deprived of the advantages of wardship, marriage, &c. and was reduced to his simple rights. This circumstance sufficiently explains why the old law would not allow to the ancestor, the power of making his right or special heir take as purchaser. In deeds, this rule is to this day strictly followed; so that, in them, heirs of the body cannot be words of purchase: but in wills these terms are to be construed according to the obvious intention of the testator. The practice of courts, as it strikes us, has wisely introduced this qualification: but that practice is here impeached; we think, without any good reason. We can see no solid ground for maintaining that the misapprehension of a term, on the part of a testator, should give to his testamentary disposition a meaning and an operation most different from that which he intended By the present practice, due effect is given to wills, agreeably to the enactments of the legislature and to sound policy; while the rule of law, properly applied, remains in all its force. Jo.

Art. 34. *The Student's Guide through Lincoln's Inn:* containing an Account of that Honourable Society, the Forms of Admission, Keeping Terms, Performing Exercises, Call to the Bar, and other useful Information. By Thomas Lane, Steward. The 2d Edition. 12mo. 7s. To be had at the Steward's Office. 1805.

This useful manual is well adapted to answer the purposes for which it is more immediately designed, and deserves the patronage which it has experienced from the Society and the Public. Though it principally claims the attention of professional Gentlemen, and of Parents and others who are intitled to direct the pursuits of youth, it contains information which will prove interesting to the curious in general;

general; since it distinctly traces the avenues which lead to the higher branch of the legal profession. Lincoln's Inn is regarded as one of the most considerable of our law foundations, and numerous particulars relating to it are here detailed. The volume describes its antiquities, its present state, and that of its appendages, the treasures of the library, the preliminaries to initiation, the mystery of eating commons, the expences incident to the noviciate, the terms of residence, the mode of obtaining the degree of barrister, and the rank, privileges, and duties of the several members of this distinguished body. The respect shewn to religion by the provisions made for its maintenance is with propriety remarked; and a list is inserted of various characters in the state, the law, and the church, which have belonged to, or been connected with, the Society.

The biographical sketches, which are interspersed throughout the volume, add materially to the interest of it; and we should have been glad to have met with a greater number of them: perhaps in a future edition the author may increase this portion of his work. It is illustrated by a correct plan of Lincoln's Inn, and plates containing fac similes of the hand-writing of several eminent characters; of that of King Charles II.; and of various illustrious persons in his suite who entered themselves at Lincoln's Inn on the 29th of Feb. 1671, &c. &c. Jo.

MILITARY.

Art. 35. *Twenty Three Year's Practice and Observations with Rifle Guns*, by Ezekiel Baker, Gun-maker, and Rifle gun maker to the Prince of Wales, opposite Whitechapel Church, London. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Sold by the Author, and by Egerton.

Concise practical directions are here given for attaining skill in this assassinating art, which appear, as the title asserts, to be the result of experience. While it is deemed allowable to *bring down* our fellow-creatures individually, as the game keeper selects his buck, such instructions for the management of the Rifle as Mr. Baker here gives will be found very useful. Coloured Plates are added, exhibiting the Rifleman in the different attitudes of presenting: standing, kneeling, on his back, on his belly; with the representations of some experiments at Targets with guns constructed by the author. G. 2.

Art. 36. *Instructions for the Use of Yeomanry and Volunteer Corps of Cavalry*. By Colonel Herries of the Light Horse Volunteers of London and Westminster. Part II. Crown 8vo. pp. 300. 10s. 6d. Boards. Egerton, &c.

The first part of this work, which has already been announced with approbation *, was allotted to the drill, and to the formation of a squadron. In the present, the Colonel details the Standing Orders of the Regiment which he commands, which are in course adapted to its particular circumstances and construction, but which are all conformable to the articles of war, the orders of the Commander in Chief, and his Majesty's regulations. Then follow Extracts

* See M. Rev. Vol. xliii. N. S. p. 446.

from

from general Rules and Orders for his Majesty's forces, applicable to Volunteers corps when on service; and next, also taken from the King's Regulations, the formation of a Regiment for parade and exercise, and a series of movements and attacks recommended to Yeomanry and Volunteers Corps of Cavalry. The Words of Command for the manœuvres are given on the left hand page, with diagrams representing the position on the opposite leaf. Copies of various returns and reports are subjoined.

This publication is in course principally calculated for the Regiment of Light Horse Volunters of London, but will be very useful to the Officers and privates of all other cavalry corps of this description. Colonel H. appears to have devoted great attention to its compilement; and his knowlege of the peculiarities attached to the *Volunteer* Soldier has enabled him to advert to various points which are not included in the official *Manual for Volunteer Cavalry*.

G.2.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 37. Preached Nov. 17, 1805, in the Independent Chapel, Penzance, Cornwall; occasioned by the Death of Lord Nelson. Published BY *request* *. By the Rev. John Foxell. 8vo. 1s. Baynes.

Divines are prone to intermeddle with politics, but they do not always shew their discretion. From an energetic praise of the merits of Lord Nelson, and from deep lamentations of his loss, Mr. Foxell at once proceeds to draw a contrast between the British Hero and the Saviour of the World: but did the preacher's audience want to be told that there was no comparison between political victories and the blessings of salvation? In other respects, the sermon is unobjectionable; inculcating pious, loyal, and patriotic sentiments.

Mo-y.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Dr. Ortolani's Letter shall be considered, when we have before us another volume of the work to which it refers.

The object of F.'s inquiry is not overlooked, but we have prior claims to satisfy. How often do we perceive that the impatience of authors prevents them from allowing for the very extensive duties of Reviewers!—The *second* letter is also received.

☞ In the last *Appendix*, p. 502. l. 4. for 'Princess,' r. *Princes*. —P. 508. l. 27. put a comma after '*remote*'; and l. 28. for 'sciences,' r. *science*.—P. 527. l. 3. from the bott. insert the word '*little*' before '*more*'.—P. 530. l. 10. from bott. for 'pursuits,' r. *pursuit*.

In the Number for January, P. 78. l. 7. from bott. insert a comma after '*parishes*'.—P. 103. l. 7. for 'perplexity,' r. *prolixity*.

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* We have often heard of this Publisher, but we could never learn where he resides.

Errors, P. 119, 160, 190, 218